DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 296 114 CE 050 392

AUTHOR	Peace, Brian, Ed.; Foster, Keith, Ed.
TITLE	Training Adult Educators. Proceedings of a National Conference (2nd, Wodonga, Victoria, Australia, May 25-28, 1985). The AAAE Monograph Series in Adult and Continuing Education Number Two.
INSTITUTION	Australian Association of Adult Education.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-949145-02-5
PUB DATE	Sep 86
NOTE	183p.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC08 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Adult Education; *Adult Educators; Case Studies; Community Programs; Educational Practices; Foreign Countries; Human Resources; Labor Force Development; Postsecondary Education; *Staff Development; *Teacher Education; Teacher Improvement; Teacher Qualifications; Teaching Methods; *Tutors
IDENTIFIERS	*Australia

ABSTRACT

The following papers are included: "Setting the Scene" (Brian Peace); "Different Training for Different Adult Educators?" (Michael Newman); "The Training of Part-Time Teachers in Adult Education: The UK Experience" (Brian Graham); "Adult Education Tutor Support" (Aileen Kelly); "Six Category Intervention Analysis" (Sue Knights); "Competency Analysis for Human Resource Developers" (Adrian Geering); "Managing Change in Adult Education" (Geoff Scott); "Computer-Based Interactive Video" (Brian Baldie); "Interactive Video" (Brian Baldie); "The Development of Tertiary Qualifications for Human Resource Practitioners" (Adrian Geering); "Personnel Development in the Australian Public Service" (Jane Briggs and David Patton); "Staff Development: The Search for an Appropriate Paradigm" (Leonie Jennings); "Staff Development: The Implications of Theories of Adult Development" (Roger Morris); "Workshop: Designing and Running Staff Development Workshops" (Lee Andresen); "Empathy Training" (Colleen Mullavey O'Byrne); "Training for Community-Based Adult Education Administrative Committees" (Elinor Crossing and Robb Mason); "Andragogy" (Mark Tennant); "Sessional Tutors" (Robb Mason); "Tranby Aboriginal College" (Report of Special Interest Group); "Training from Women's Perspectives" (Report of Special Interest Group); "Training Adult Educators" (Mark Tennant); "Encouraging Farmers to Train Other Farmers" (David Stent); "Developing Training Officer Skills in Curriculum Development" (John Maitland); and "The Adult Educator as Administrator" (Gillian Shadwick). A list of conference recommendations and a register of participants complete the document. (MN)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

TRAINING ADULT EDUCATORS

The AAAE Monograph Series in
Adult and Continuing Education
NUMBER TWO

Proceedings of a National
Conference held in May 1985,
Clyde Cameron College, Wodonga,
Victoria.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

ERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
ATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
M Hannan
O THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
IFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

ED296114
CE050392

Australian Association of Adult Education Canberra 1986

TRAINING ADULT EDUCATORS

PROCEEDINGS OF A NATIONAL CONFERENCE
HELD IN MAY 1985,
WODONGA, AUSTRALIA.

Editors: Brian Peace and Keith Foster

Australian Association of Adult Education
Canberra 1985

Training Adult Educators

Proceedings of a National Conference held
at the Clyde Cameron College, Wodonga, Victoria,
Australia, on 25 - 28 May, 1985

A collection of papers, supporting
documents and workshop reports

Sponsored by

The Australian Association of Adult Education Inc

P.O. Box 1346
Canberra, ACT,
Australia, 2601

September, 1985

ISBN 0 949145 02 5

c Australian Association of Adult Education Inc.

Preface

This report of the proceedings of the National Conference on Training Adult Educators presents the supporting documents for the activities offered in 24 sessions over three days and evenings. Three of the sessions were arranged at the conference to accommodate special interest groups while the remaining 21 were included in the original conference program.

The supporting documents and workshop session reports presented here vary in style. In general, presenters at sessions attended by all participants provided more formal supporting documents. Presenters at the small group elective sessions used a range of techniques from intense experiential to the presentation of a paper with a following discussion. Thus, the supporting documents provided by presenters at small group sessions varied in length and detail reflecting the extent to which each session emphasised participant involvement.

The opening session presented by Brian Peace explains the origin of this conference, outlines some trends apparent in the field in Australia and sets the objectives of the conference. The sessions which follow reflect the diversity of interests and developments in Australia in the field of preparing and supporting adult educators as practitioners in an expanding sector of education.

Table of Contents

	Page
Preface	ii
Table of Contents	iii
National Conference on Training Adult Educators: Conference Program	1
Setting the Scene Brian Peace	4
Different Training for Different Adult Educators? Michael Newman	6
The Training of Part-Time Teachers in Adult Education: The UK Experience Brian Graham	15
Adult Education Tutor Support Aileen Kelly	20
Six Category Intervention Analysis: A Tool for Self and Peer Assessment Sue Knights	22
Competency Analysis for Human Resource Developers Dr Adrian Geering	25
Managing Change in Adult Education Geoff Scott	30
Computer-Based Interactive Video: The Crossroads of Resources Dr Brian Baldie	42
Interactive Video: A Question of Sophistication Dr Brian Baldie	48
The Development of Tertiary Qualifications for Human Resource Practitioners Dr Adrian Geering	54
Personnel Development in the Australian Public Service Jane Briggs and David Patton	71
Staff Development: The Search for an Appropriate Paradigm Leonie Jennings	74
Staff Development: The Implications of Theories of Adult Development Dr Roger Morris	81

Workshop: Designing and Running Staff
Development Workshops
Lee Andresen 93

Empathy Training: A Resource for Human Development
in Adult Education
Colleen Mullavey O'Byrne 106

Training for Community-Based Adult Education
Administrative Committees
Elinor Crossing and Robb Mason 114

Andragogy: Problems and Prospects
Dr Mark Tennant 116

Sessional Tutors: The Face of Adult Education?
Robb Mason 125

Tranby Aboriginal College:
Report of Special Interest Group 137

Training, from Women's Perspectives:
Report of Special Interest Group 140

Training Adult Educators: A Case Study
Dr Mark Tennant 141

Encouraging Farmers to Train Other Farmers:
Case Studies in Rural Traineeship and Short-Course
Programme Development
David Stent 156

Developing Training Officer Skills in Curriculum
Development: New South Wales Police as a Case Study
John Maitland 163

The Adult Educator as Administrator: A
Simulation Activity
Gillian Shadwick 169

Conference Recommendations on Training Adult Educators 171

Register of Participants 172

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON TRAINING ADULT EDUCATORS

25-28 May 1985

CONFERENCE PROGRAM

SATURDAY - 25 MAY

7.00 pm	Welcome to the Conference John Wellings, President, AAAE
7.15 pm	Setting the Scene and Objectives for the Conference Brian Peace, NSW Board of Adult Education
7.30 pm	Paper Different Training for Different Adult Educators Michael Newman, Freelance Consultant in Adult Education, Sydney

SUNDAY - 26 MAY

9.00 am	Paper The Training of Part-time Teachers of Adults: The English Experience Brian Graham, University of Nottingham
11.00 am	Four Workshops 1 Adult Education Tutor Support Aileen Kelly, Victorian Council of Adult Education 2 Six Category Intervention Analysis: A Tool for Self and Peer Assessment Sue Knights, Freelance Consultant, Sydney 3 Competencies Analysis for Human Resource Development Dr Adrian Geering, Course Co-ordinator, Associate Diploma in Training and Development, South Australian CAE 4 Managing Change in Adult Education Geoff Scott, Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education, Sydney
2.00 pm	Paper Instructional Design: The Development of Interactive Training Packages Dr Brian Baldie, PhD, Macquarie University. Consultant to Pathfinder Interactive Systems

4.00 pm - 5.15 pm Demonstration and Application of Interactive Training Packages
Dr Brian Baldie, PhD, Macquarie University, Consultant to Pathfinder Interactive Systems

7.00 pm Paper

The Development of Tertiary Qualifications for Human Resource Practitioners in Australia
Dr Adrian Geering, Course Co-ordinator/Associate Diploma in Training and Development, South Australian CAE

MONDAY - 27 MAY

9.00 am Three Papers

1 Personnel Development in the Australian Public Service
D. Patton, J. Briggs, Australian Public Service

2 Staff Development: The Search for an Appropriate Paradigm
Leonie Jennings, Deakin University

3 Preparing Human Resource Developers: The Implications of Theories of Adult Development
Dr Roger Morris, Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education, Sydney

11.00 am Workshops/Papers

1 Designing and Running Staff Development Workshops
Lee Andresen, Tertiary Education Research Centre, University of New South Wales

2 Empathy Training: A Resource for Human Development in Adult Education
Colleen Mullavey O'Byrne, Cumberland College of Health Sciences

3 Training for Community-based Adult Education Administrative Committees
Elinor Crossing, Robb Mason, Victorian Council of Adult Education

4 Andragogy: Prospects and Problems
Dr Mark Tennant, Institute of Technical and Adult teacher Education, Sydney

2.00 pm Paper

Research Findings on Part-time Tutors of Adults in Victoria
Robb Mason, Victorian Council of Adult Education

4.00 pm - 5.00 pm	Display Videos for Training and Other Resources
7.30 pm	Repeat Sessions and Interest Groups as Required

TUESDAY - 28 MAY

9.00 am	Papers/Workshops 1 Encouraging Farmers to Train Other Farmers: Case Studies in Rural Apprenticeship and Short-course Program Development David Stent, NSW Department of Agriculture 2 Developing Training Officer Skills in Curriculum Development: NSW Police as a Case Study John Maitland, Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education, Sydney 3 The Adult Educator as Administrator Gillian Shadwick, Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education, Sydney
11.00 am	Paper The World of the Part-time Adult Teacher Brian Graham, University of Nottingham
12.00 noon	Plenary Session Formulating and Adopting Conference Recommendations Conference Ends

SETTING THE SCENE

Brian Peace

Undoubtedly, the Clyde Cameron College in Wodonga provides an ideal environment for the second National Conference on Training in Adult Education. It was here in 1981, under the auspices of the Australian Association of Adult Education, that the first National Conference on Training was held. The college, with its first class training and domestic facilities, possibly provides one of the best venues in Australia for a conference of this kind. It seemed fitting, therefore, for the organisers of the second Conference to again approach the Trade Union Training Authority for the use of their facilities at the Clyde Cameron College.

In setting the scene for the next three days, I believe a little background information on the first Conference and its outcomes would be useful. As far as I am aware, the 1981 conference was the first of its kind which specifically attempted to bring together on a national basis, adult educators who were either involved in or interested in training in adult education in their respective organisations. It was essentially an exploratory conference which brought together paid and unpaid practitioners, administrators, academics and training officers. In general terms, the objectives were: to determine the extent of existing training opportunities in Australia; to identify resource persons; and to exchange ideas on programmes, strategies, resources and key issues.

Although not all these objectives were fully achieved, the conference was generally believed to be a successful one. There was a worthwhile exchange of ideas, programmes and strategies and a register of resources and persons interested in training was established. The latter is recorded in the Conference Proceedings which were published under the auspices of the Australian Association of Adult Education in 1982. Copies of the Proceedings, incidentally, are still available from the AAAE at a small cost. Various interest groups also met during the conference from which the AAAE Research Network and Cross Cultural Network were ultimately formed. If one could express disappointment, however, it would be to mention the lack of representation from Queensland and Western Australia at that first conference.

However, things were beginning to happen in the training field in some of the other states and the problems associated with cost and distance may have inhibited the attendance of interested persons in those States far removed from Wodonga. In any event, the Victoria Council of Adult Education had, for some time, provided training programmes for many of its tutors. Human Resource Development was the concern of industry, commerce and the Public Service and, in New South Wales, the Board of Adult Education, in response to a strong demand from the community sector, had completed a survey of adult education agencies and had initiated short duration training for co-ordinators of community based adult education programmes. In practice, the New South Wales Board of Adult Education provided financial support for certain Universities and Colleges of Advanced Education to organise and conduct workshops using experienced adult educators. A Number of useful training resources had also been developed. Several Universities and Colleges had, in the late 1970's and early 1980's also established formal 'training' programmes leading to accreditation in the field. In New South Wales, for example, the University of New England, Sydney University, Macquarie University, Hawkesbury Agricultural College and the Sydney College of Advanced Education through its Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education had initiated various formal programmes in adult education covering a range of levels and interests. Similarly, formal programmes in adult education had been established in Victoria and South Australia and today, academic institutions in other States have followed suit. In effect then, we have seen a significant increase of interest in training for adult educators in Australia in recent years, a trend which is reflected worldwide in adult education.

One might ask, of course, where all this development is leading? Are we trying to gain recognition for adult education in a professional sense? After all, prior to the 1970's, adult education had a relatively small theoretical base; practice and experience were the essence of success and the traditional 'formal' adult educator inevitably arrived on the scene with a qualification in some other discipline. On the other hand, we might be looking to enhance the quality of provision of adult education or simply finding a way to gain the confidence of politicians and thus acquire a greater slice of educational resources. We are probably all aware that Adult Education has traditionally received little government support! Whatever the answer, training is with us and is valuable in an accountability sense. Training, however should not be regarded as a panacea but it certainly deserves the attention it is getting at the present time. In this regard, it is interesting to note the increased involvement of volunteers and part-time adult educators in training programmes. The interest shown by managers of community based adult education programmes is surely encouraging and indicative of the value of training.

It was pleasing, therefore, that one of the recommendations that came from the first National Conference was for a follow up conference on Training in Adult Education to be held in three or four years time. This second National Conference is the response to that recommendation - its purpose being to identify progress made and to again exchange ideas, strategies, resources and key issues. A Conference Committee was formed and, here, I would like to express my thanks to various persons who have been associated with the committee over the past 12 months - Keith Foster, Leonie Jennings, Gail McCleod, Rosemary Keogh, Chris Cookson and Nancy O'Connor.

In conclusion, I am pleased to welcome you all to this conference and to thank contributors to the programme which, I believe, is challenging and which has attempted to deal with a wide range of interests and issues. The conference then which the committee, in attempting to reflect the diversity of participants backgrounds, chose to entitle "Preparing Human Resource Developers" has as its principle objective - the provision of a national forum for the presentation and exchange of information, research and experience in Training and Human Resource Development in the field of adult education. May you have an enjoyable conference and may our objectives be achieved.

DIFFERENT TRAINING FOR DIFFERENT ADULT EDUCATORS?

Michael Newman

Are there any unifying factors that would allow us to devise a coherent Australian strategy for the training of adult educators?

ADULT EDUCATORS

We are in trouble straight away when we ask this question because adult educators come in a number of guises. For example, we might categorise them in the following ways:

Trainers: These are people working within defined institutions or departments who are responsible for the training of 'captive' groups of employees, fellow members or workers. The institution - a business, or government department, or an organisation like the Red Cross - is likely to have a clearly defined set of objectives to which the trainer would have to work.

Continuing educators: These are people working within institutions such as universities or colleges of advanced education and who are responsible for running updating courses and conferences for professional people.

'Familiar' adult educators: These are educators working within traditional adult education agencies such as the Workers' Educational Association of New South Wales or an evening college or the Council of Adult Education in Melbourne. Their job is to develop, market and manage programs of courses aimed at 'general interest' adult students.

Community adult educators: These are people working for community-based adult education centres. These centres are managed by committees drawn from the locality; their programs are often small; and the context and teaching is usually informal.

Outreach adult educators: These are people working within comparatively large institutions such as a technical college but with a brief to reach out and provide an educational response to the people of a defined locality or community.

'Special group' adult educators: These are people concerned with providing an educational response to the needs and demands of specific groups of people such as Aboriginal people, women, migrants, trade unionists, the physically handicapped, and the intellectually handicapped.

PROGRAMS

From the above we can see that adult educators operate in different contexts and serve widely differing client groups. Is there any uniformity in what they do?

We could answer reasonably safely that all of the above categories plan, implement, and coordinate programs[1]. But the word 'programs', like the title 'adult educator', is capable of a number of different applications. For example, an adult education program might be:

---

[1] In this paper I am talking about adult educators as organisers, not as adult tutors.

- a one day conference on Aboriginal land rights;
- a symposium on the environmental dangers to rain forests;
- a skills training course for welders in a technical college;
- fortnightly meetings run by a church group on the international ecumenical movement;
- induction courses for newcomers to the workforce in a Kellogs packaging plant;
- a one-to-one literacy scheme;
- the courses and activities organised over a year by a team of outreach workers in a TAFE college;
- a series of ten lectures on astronomy organised by a museum;
- a course to upgrade bank tellers in the use of newly installed electronic equipment;
- the curriculum of a suburban leisure learning centre;
- the Autumn syllabus of the Workers' Educational Association of South Australia;
- a weekend arts and crafts workshop at an arts centre;
- meeting and exhibitions on multi-culturalism at a public library;
- a two-week advocacy skills course at Clyde Cameron College for trade unionists;
- an approach used at the Yipirinya school in Alice Springs to teach English language speakers the Aboriginal language of Arrernte; or
- a number of courses run by different agencies and attended by an individual after consultation with an educational counsellor.

KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS

If their programs vary so much, is there any common ground to be found in the way adult educators go about setting them up?

One of the basic tenets of adult education is that adult educators must understand the context in which they are to work and assess the potential learners' requirements - that they must, in the language of the trade, do a 'needs assessment'. I would like to run through those six categories of adult educator again and see what knowledge and skills they might need in order to take that initial step in the planning of a program:

Trainers: Need to look at the institution in which they work and its history, philosophy, function, structure, personnel and objectives. They also need to form a detailed picture of the potential trainees and their numbers, characteristics, levels of skill, educational experience and degree of motivation. To do this they need analytical skills, research techniques and an understanding of institutional structures and management.

Continuing educators: Need to understand the faculties and departments of their tertiary institution, keep abreast with the development in each discipline, and forge contacts with the professional groups using those disciplines in the commercial, legal and bureaucratic worlds outside. To do this they need consultancy skills and an acquaintance with professional languages.

'Familiar' adult educators: Need to form a clear picture of their institution, how it fits in with other educational providers, and how it relates to government bodies and other providers of funds. The need to develop strategies for keeping abreast of the shifting patterns of interests and aspirations in the community at large, and they need to promote courses in such a way as to both respond to and create demand. To do this, familiar adult educators need to develop skills akin to those of a good journalist and publicist.

Community adult educators: Need to get to know and understand the people involved in the voluntary management structure of their centre. A special range of problems and opportunities can arise when volunteers and professionals work together in the same organisation, and community adult educators need to devise strategies to deal with the problems and develop the necessary skills to take advantage of the opportunities. Community adult educators also need to develop a detailed understanding of the community from which the centre draws its management and membership. To do this they need to master the techniques of both formal and informal research.

Outreach adult educators: Need to form an understanding of the institution from which they are reaching out and the community they are serving. They need to develop techniques for describing the welfare and educational provision in their area and for identifying the gaps in provision that their institution might be able to fill. Outreach adult educators need a knowledge of community networks, and an understanding of the factors contributing to social disadvantage.

'Special group' adult educators: Need to develop an understanding of the 'culture' of the specific groups they are working with. This is easily said but for an Anglo-Australian adult educator seeking to work with Aboriginal people the task of gaining a cross-cultural understanding is enormous. And for the sighted adult teacher, gaining a full understanding of all the complex skills and knowledge that blind and partially-sighted people master in order to have mobility is by definition impossible. Most groups have their own histories, bodies of knowledge, organisations, and ways of relating both within their group and with the world outside it. Adult educators who cannot enter fully into a group's culture (or sense they would be unwelcome if they tried) will have to forge alliances with key individuals in the group and seek out 'interpreters' or advocates to speak on their behalf. Special group adult educators need to learn how to intervene in other people's lives without dictating or intruding.

THREE GROUPINGS

Now I believe we can see these differing categories of adult educator falling into three major groupings, and so offering the would-be trainer of adult educators some kind of order within which to begin formulating training. For shorthand purposes I would like to call these groupings 'Modelers', 'Selfers' and 'Interventionists'.

Modelers

Modelers are drawn mainly from the trainers, continuing educators and some of the familiar adult educators. To design their programs they follow models that derive from Tyler's approach (Tyler, 1949).

Tyler's model for developing programs consists of four basic steps:

- set objectives
- select learning experiences
- organise learning experience for effective instruction
- evaluate the effectiveness of the learning experiences

Houle (1973) and Boyle (1981) have amended and developed this approach by adding steps, identifying key decision points in the planning process and categorising different kinds of educational situation. And Knowles in The Modern Practice of Adult Education (1980) offers the following expanded version of Tyler's model:

- the establishment of a climate conducive to learning
- the creation of an organisational structure for participative learning
- the diagnosis of needs for learning
- the formulation of directions for learning (objectives)
- the development of a design of activities
- the operation of the activities
- the rediagnosis of needs for learning (evaluation)

Tyler's model and these variations are north American and they usually assume a stable institutional and societal base. They are pragmatic and ordered in chronological steps. And they are apolitical, in that they assume a reasonably affluent, culturally homogeneous clientele.

Modelers use these approaches to design programs for organisations and are often more concerned with achieving the organisation's objectives than with meeting the individual learning needs of students. Indeed, some Modelers would regard their trainees simply as so many components of the organisation they are there to serve, and would see little or no conflict between organisational goals and individual ones.

SELFERS

By contrast Selfers provide opportunities for 'self-actualisation'. they have a long history, going back to those nineteenth century British concepts of 'liberal adult educaiton' in which education was for education's sake – or rather, education was for the individual's sake. This non-vocational tradition still flourishes of course, but has had grafted on to it the modern adult education activities deriving from the worlds of psychology, psychoanalysis and psycho-therapy. Selfers include in their programs courses on assertiveness training, communication skills and personal growth, along with a whole range of courses relating to the development of individual artistic, intellectual and physical skills. Selfers are mainly to be found among the familiar adult educators and the community adult educators, and their theoretical underpinning can be found in writers such as Rogers (1969) and Mezirow (1977). Jarvis (1983) has a hand in it, too, by reinterpreting Maslow's hierarchy of needs in adult education terms and leaving 'self actualisation' as the pinnacle.

The Selfers, too, are apolitical, looking to the development of the individual. The belief seems to be that individuals will benefit more from, and make a greater contribution to, the world around them if they become more fully developed people. The possibility of changing society or mobilising the community is not canvassed. Rogers concentrates on the value for the individual of experiential learning and Mezirow sees the individual moving from crisis through learning to a reintegration into society. Community adult educators might take issue with me for calling them apolitical, but many of them concentrate on mounting programs of liberal studies, arts, crafts and personal development, and do not really question the values of the communities they serve.

INTERVENTIONISTS

Then there are the Interventionists. These are to be found mainly from within the ranks of the outreach adult educators and the special group adult educators. Their approach will differ according to their contexts and their special groups but many of them are likely to adopt practices that derive from the theory and practice of community work and the writing of Paulo Freire.

In the United Kingdom in the sixties a number of major community development projects were set up in inner city areas. The workers in these projects often encountered amongst the young and other alienated groups an antipathy to institutions, including those institutions promoting the community development projects. In response to this program, the concept of the 'detached' youth or community worker evolved. Some of these detached workers identified closely with their 'client' groups, and set about helping mobilise them in order to win a greater share of the conflict of class interests, and opted to work on the side of the working class.

Adult education in its turn developed the concept of 'outreach', in which a community education or outreach worker operated out of an adult education centre, intervened in the lives of other people, and sought to take educational resources to these people on their own terms and on their own home ground. Some of these adult educators saw the working class losing out badly in social, economic and educational terms, and directed their educational activities to supporting working class community action (Newman, 1979).

In the early seventies Freire's Pedagogy of the Oppressed (1972) was published in English. In this book Freire reflects on his work in Brazil and Chile and outlines strategies that take account of and are intended to counteract cultural and political oppression. Freire advocates going to the potential learners and listening to them, learning from them and identifying with them. By entering into a dialogue with the learners, the educator helps them identify significant 'generative themes'. Educator and learner work together, question what they had previously taken for granted and try to understand where they have been socialised into accepting an imposed culture. Through the analysis of language and its use, and through becoming aware of their condition, the learners are encouraged to reconstruct their view of the world and their position in it. Through this process, the learners are encouraged to reject their former role as 'objects' in social history and to undertake to become 'subjects' of their own destiny.

Freire formulated his approach within the context of South America and influenced the work of educators amongst illiterate peasants in remote rural areas, yet his writings were seen as relevant by adult educators in many other parts of the world. In the United Kingdom adult educators such as Jackson (1973), Lovett (1975), Head (1971) and Thompson (1980) have developed Freire's ideas and related them to the very different contexts of Britain's post-industrial inner cities. In Australia adult educators such as Goldflam and Scott (1983) have extended Freire's strategies to cross-cultural education in and around Alice Springs.

Interventionists work with groups, but often in conditions where the groups do not have a high degree of formal organisation and where there are varying individual needs and aspirations. Through the examination of relevant issues the Interventionist hopes to bring to these groups a heightened sense of community and common purpose in which both the interests of the individuals and the interests of the group can be served.

OPTIONS

Three groups of adult educator, then, each with their different modes of practice and bodies of theory. But are we any nearer developing a strategy for the training of adult educators?

We might argue that adult education is such a diffuse concept and that adult educators differ so greatly that it is pointless trying to develop a coordinated strategy. In that case we would accept that the training of adult educators will have to be fragmented, with each of the six (or more) categories concentrating on their differences and developing their own thinking and packages of skills. We would accept that none but the most abstract benefits would come from trainers meeting with community adult educators or outreach workers hobnobbing with continuing educators.

Or we might try for the groupings along the lines I have suggested above, and provide separate training for Modelers, Selfers and Interventionists. For the Modelers training would emphasise organisational and management skills, the implementation of change, task analysis, and competency-based instruction. For the Selfers we might stress the adult learning principles of Knowles and Draves (1984) in which techniques are devised for creating learning environments and helping people draw upon their own experience and resources. And for the Interventionists we would develop training that emphasised work with the powerless, the techniques of intervention, and methods of building educational activities around themes and issues.

Or we might still try to develop a coordinated strategy for the training of all adult educators.

TOWARDS A CO-ORDINATED TRAINING STRATEGY

I am not going to suggest that we cobble together the three approaches above. Rather, I suggest we run with the third.

I propose that we accept as an underlying principle to all training that adult education is a political act. Obviously we can argue that a lot of special group adult education, outreach adult education and community education has political overtones since much of this education is aimed at disadvantaged groups or related to political and social issues. But I believe that good familiar adult education, good continuing education and good training are political too.

A dressmaking class, a class in music theory, a training course for new employees in a building society, a weekend seminar for solicitors on changes to company law, a week-long course for union representatives on occupational health and safety can all be political activities in that they are concerned with effecting or encouraging or enabling change. Of course in some adult education the concern is with individual change, with developing the individual's talents. But brainwashing and indoctrination can change an individual too, so I would like to add that good adult education not only effects change, but it makes the individual participants aware that they can change and helps them discover the methods by which they can bring about that change. By distinguishing between these two kinds of change we are already placing a political value on even the most non-controversial adult education program.

But courses, classes, seminars and conferences involve groups of people. Here the political act in the adult educational process becomes more obvious. In providing a course the adult educator is enabling people to develop a group consciousness. And if we accept that good adult education moves towards change, we now find ourselves talking about a group of people developing a collective awareness that change is possible and considering cooperative methods of effecting change.

Anyone with more than the briefest experience of adult education knows that special feeling that can occur when an adult education activity begins to 'hum'; when a group of disparate individuals begin working together, cooperating, sharing, strengthening and altering relationships, gathering a group confidence that communicates itself beyond the training or classroom. Of course we, as adult educators, can try to introduce political content into our programs through courses on issues such as unemployment, rights, ideologies and the like, but that 'hum' can be heard in the most familiar adult education courses, in the most vocationally oriented continuing education course and in the dryest of training courses when people are really learning, and when they are really learning together. That 'hum' is a political sound.

Educators often shy away from seeing education in political terms, and see an apolitical stance within the training or classroom as necessary to ensure that what is going on is 'educational'. I believe that good adult education only occurs when the political processes that pervade all of adult life are encouraged to flourish in the classroom as well.

If we accept that, then we can regard the adult educator - and the adult tutor - as intervening in other people's lives. We can see them as taking resources to people, negotiating with them, helping them form alliances, cooptions and federations, and encouraging them to develop techniques for effecting change. These are political skills and to exercise them properly adult educators will need an understanding of the political theories that underpin them. It is upon this political base that I believe we should construct our strategies for training.

FORMING OUR OWN THEORY

Finally, I believe we should take a leaf from the book of those UK adult educators who read Freire and then turned his theories and strategies to their own very different contexts. I believe we should do likewise with what they have written and turn it to our very different Australian context. We need a body of reflective writing on adult education practice that is thoroughly Australian, that takes account of our systems, our vast spaces and small population, the way we crowd the edge of our continent, our contradictory self-images, our national achievements and national guilts, our uniformity of culture and our espousal of multi-culturalism, our ways of relating and our political hopes and realities.

We can pick and choose from overseas writers and go for fragmented training of our adult educators. Or we can develop unified strategies based on a search for what is Australian in our adult education practice, and based on the premise that all good adult education is, in the terms I have described above, political education[2].

(My thanks to adult educator, Brian Graham, University of Nottingham and two colleagues, Michael Costello and Brian Cobb, of the Trade Union Training Authority, Sydney.)

---

[2] In some of this paper I have reworked material written for a Resource Guide for adult educators in Program Development, Implementation and Evaluation.

References

Boyle, P.B. Planning Better Programs McGraw-Hill, N.Y. 1981.

Draves, W.A. How to Teach Adults Lern, Kansas, US, 1984.

Freire, P. Pedagogy of the Oppressed Penguin, UK, 1972.

Goldflam, R. & Scott, C. "Language Teaching in the Centre: Distance of Immersion" in SGAV Review July No 4, 1983.

Head, D. "Education at the Bottom" in Studies in Adult Education Vol.9, No 2, NIAE, 1977.

Houle, C.O. The Design of Education Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1973.

Jackson, K. "The Marginality of Community Development - Implications for Adult Education" in The International Review of Community Development, 1973.

Jarvis, P. Adult and Continuing Education Croom Helm, UK, 1983.

Knowles, M. The Modern Practice of Adult Education Follett, Chicago, 1980.

Lovett, T. Adult Education, Community Development and the Working Class Ward Lock, UK, 1975.

Mezirow, J. "Perspective Transformation" in Studies in Adult Education Vol.9, No.2, NIAE, UK, 1977.

Newman, M. The Poor Cousin Allen and Unwin, UK, 1979. (This book contains a discussion of the development of outreach policies and practice in the Inner London Education Authority.)

Rogers, C.R. Freedom to Learn Charles E, Merrill Publishing Co., Ohio, 1969.

Thompson, J. (ed.) Adult Education for a Change Heinemann, UK, 1980.

Tyler, R. Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction University of Chicago Press, 1949.

THE TRAINING OF PART-TIME TEACHERS IN ADULT EDUCATION - THE UK EXPERIENCE

Brian Graham

The bulk of teaching in general adult education, and a large proportion of that in the work-related sector is done by part-time teachers. They are people who are qualified in a subject or craft, some doing no other paid work, others teaching full-time to other age groups for which they have been trained. The quality of the adult education service depends largely upon the skills of this army of part-time teachers. It is almost impossible to determine the exact size of this part-time teacher force, however, figures from some government statistics in the late 1970's do provide us with a general picture of the number of people employed. The estimates were as follows:

1 130,000 Local Education Authority adult and further education teachers (UK government figures don't distinguish between teachers employed in further education colleges and other forms of Local Authority Adult Education).

2 10,000 Workers' Education Association and University Extra Mural part-time tutors.

My impressions are that this is a conservative estimate and that in the last five years the figures have increased to nearer 160,000. Therefore, it is worth noting at this stage that the 2½ million students attending adult education classes in the UK receive their tuition from part-time teachers.

The concept of training for part-time teachers is not new, and the schemes that I am about to describe have been gradually evolving during the last 30 years. Since the 1950's, brief induction courses, subject up-dating courses and general conferences have been provided in different parts of the UK. Meetings of this nature were popular and useful; they brought teachers together and provided them with a chance to exchange ideas. However, they were organised on an ad hoc basis and were limited in both content and purpose. They were products of their time.

The impetus for change came during the expansionist and optimistic years of the early 1970's when a small number of training courses of a more substantial nature were piloted in the East Midlands region (Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Lincolnshire and Northamptonshire). Such was the response from teachers, that once started, these courses forged ahead very rapidly and helped create a movement for training which was unique in Britain. Their success, which was not without its obstacles and problems, led to a rapid spread of training to the other parts of the country. Thus the pioneering programmes created in the East Midlands developed into a three tier scheme of training which now operates nationwide. This has developed alongside programmes for the training of staff to work in Further Education Colleges.

The details of each stage of training are as follows:

STAGE I is a practical everyday course of 36 hours run on local lines but with broadly similar content. Most teachers with any but a passing commitment are expected to undertake it. Ultimately though, it may be too idiosynchratic to be recognised as other than a local 'qualification'. Nevertheless, it can provide an opportunity for the less experienced teacher to gain confidence and to discover and apply some of the basic skills of adult teaching. Mixed groups of teachers possessing different subject specialisms have worked well. Certificates of attendance (80%) are awarded by Local Education Authorities. Since 1971, approximately 600 courses have been provided and nearly 13,000 teachers have been awarded Stage I certificates.

In spite of the fact that some teachers are having to pay a fee for attending, demand has remained consistent for well over a decade.

STAGE II (and Stage II linked with the City and Guilds of London Institute, Course 730, Certificate for Teachers of Further Education) is recognised as a more substantial qualification - it consists of 60 hours attendance and 30 hours of supervised teaching practice. Since there are greater demands made upon trainees, course moderators ensure regional equivalence. Stage II certificates are awarded by Regional Advisory Councils for Further Education of which there are 9 in England. It may therefore be expected to be taken by anyone wishing to be seen as a 'regular' on the books. This stage of training, though covering much of the same ground as Stage I, does so at a more intense and theoretical level and introduces people to a more critical analysis of the concepts of adult learning and teaching. The certificate is awarded on the basis of both class and teaching assessment. The demand for Stage II has not been as high as Stage I but has remained fairly consistent. Over 200 courses have been organised, attended by 4,000 trainees.

STAGE III (Certificate of Education, Education of Adults) is a course of 450 hours for those who intend to make a full-time career in teaching adults. The importance of this qualification is that it provides recognised 'teacher status' for people who wish to gain full-time employment in Further Education Colleges. This tertiary award is currently provided by 3 universities (Manchester, Nottingham and Surrey) and a few Polytechnics. As a tertiary award it makes more rigorous demands on people, so has a limited appeal. A pre-requisite for entry to Stage III is the Stage I and Stage II certificates, plus an appropriate subject qualification. The scheme therefore provides opportunities for part-time teachers to acquire teaching competence and if required, full professional status - entirely by the part-time route.

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SCHEME

As a major area of adult education curriculum development, the evolution of training for part-time teachers during the last 15 years has been remarkable. It has benefited not just adult education but has influenced training methodology more widely, particularly in Youth Work, Social Work, the Churches, Public Services and elsewhere. The scheme is linking up with the important training schemes of voluntary and subject organisations.

Only brief indications can be given of the factors which may be responsible for the success of the three stage scheme, but the following may serve as an outline.

1 Courses have mostly grown organically from the development of skills and resources to organisation and provision, from pilot work

to larger scale, from introductory to advanced.

2 Training programmes are local or regional, they can therefore respond to the particular needs and feed on the particular experience of each group of trainees. There are no standard courses.

3 The organisation, teaching assessment and moderation of training have remained the responsibility mainly of active field workers co-operating as a regional team or network. This has produced high levels of educational quality, flexibility and economy. But it has also given the scheme a sense of movement in which all trainers and trainees are personally, and not just institutionally involved.

4 The courses are largely taught by experienced field practitioners who have acquired the necessary background and training methodology. Substantial trainers' courses have played a crucial part in developing this skilled manpower.

5 The courses often begin before a new teacher starts work, but are mainly in-service. Training and practical field experience are therefore mutually reinforcing.

BENEFITS AND OUTCOMES

Although the three tiered scheme has never received ministerial backing, the cause of training has been supported by the Department of Education and Science through advice, research grants and publications. There may be no national policy, but there has been national action through government reports.

In 1980, the Department of Education and Science commissioned the University of Nottingham Department of Adult Education (in association with the National Institute of Education) to evaluate the effectiveness of part-time teacher training programmes (Sullivan and Daines, 1981). The research set out to provide a statistical picture of trainers, trainee teachers, trained and untrained teachers. More important, its purpose was to give an account of the variety of training provision and to examine the attitudes to training and to teaching of all those concerned. There was an original intention to evaluate the efficiency and effectiveness of training by means of cost benefit analysis, but in the event, this was prevented by problems of data collection.

Answers were sought to questions about adult education teacher training, training course objectives, organisation benefits, as well as information upon course content, teaching methods and evaluation procedures.

The study did not confine itself to talking to senior adult education officers and course trainers; trainee teachers were asked about their training expectations, their motivations for teaching and undertaking training, and the benefits which they thought accrued from training. A sample of adult students were questioned about their classes and teachers (for a further discussion about methodology and findings see Graham, et al., 1982).

There was a degree of consistency among the benefits identified by trainers, teachers and trainees. Moreover, they were generally consistent with results of previous research in this field (Elsdon, 1970). Though it is not easy to measure change, it was evident from the study that teachers had changed. There was evidence of:

a an increased confidence in teaching and ways of working in the classroom;

b a growing awareness of the needs of adult learners, coupled with an increased sensitivity to their learning difficulties;

c an increased awareness of the importance of different teaching approaches and methods; and

d an appreciation of current provisions and purposes of adult education and their own role as teachers within this.

It was clear that teachers do not all benefit in the same way, however, it is significant that heightened awareness of adults as learners, as well as increased confidence in teaching, came consistently high in the order of benefits as stated by trainers, teachers and trainees. Nor should it be expected that there will be an instant fundamental change in trainees' teaching behaviours. It seems more likely that major modifications will appear over time, as a synthesis of training, further teaching experience and subsequent professional support beyond the training course.

In short, there was a general consensus of opinion that training was valuable and relevant. Taking the evidence together, the study concludes that training helps teachers of adults approach their work in a more knowledgeable and professional manner than before they were trained.

CRITICAL ISSUES

In spite of the fact that a viable, progressive and tiered approach to training now exists in England, there is still a need to address a number of critical issues which are fundamental to future development.

In short these are:

a The need to develop a clearer concept of adult teaching and the skills required to work effectively with adult learners;

b The need to adopt a more questioning and critical approach to the curriculum. The curriculum should speak to the contemporary social and political situation. It should engage the concerns of contemporary society and not repeat without thought past themes and approaches;

c The need for the curriculum to be set in the contemporary context of adult education in the 1980's. Underlying people's life chances are the fundamental determinants of gender, race and class. Teacher trainers need to grapple with how these affect the way teachers work with their students;

d The need to identify the crucial factors which bring about change in teaching behaviour;

e The need to help teachers think more critically and imaginatively about the subjects they teach and the principles upon which they are based;

g The need to develop trainers' programmes concurrent with teacher training programmes; and

h The need for more effective methods of communication to teachers about training programmes.

References

ACAE (1981) Specialist training for part-time teachers of adults, April.

ACSTT (1978) ACSTT II: The training of Adult Education and Part-time Further Education Teachers: Second Report.

DES (1970) Explorations in adult learning and training for Adult Education.

DES (1981) The Provision of training for part-time teachers in Further Education in relation to the recommendations of the second report of the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers (FE Sub-committee).

ELSDON, K.T. 1970, 'Some practical implications for training and professional development' in: Explorations in Adult Learning and Training for Adult Education, Proceedings of the Cambridge DES Conference, January, 1970.

GRAHAM, T.B. et al, 1982, The Training of Part-time Teachers of Adults, Department of Adult Education, University of Nottingham.

NIAE (1966) 'Recruitment and training of staff for Adult Education', Adult Education, 38, 6.

NIAE (1982) 'Training the educators of adults', NIAE Monograph, in: National Institute review of existing research in Adult and Continuing Education.

SULLIVAN, T., and DAINES, J. (1981), 'Economic Analysis and Training of Adult Educators' in B. Harvey, J. Daines, D. Jones and J. Wallis (Eds), Policy and Research in Adult Education, Department of Adult Education, University of Nottingham.

ADULT EDUCATION TUTOR SUPPORT

Aileen Kelly

CONTENT

The Council of Adult Education, Victoria (CAE) offers a program of access, leisure and skills courses which serves more than 60,000 adults annually. These are taught by sessionally contracted tutors, numbering about 900 each year, who come from a wide variety of backgrounds. Educationally, they range from skilled artisans who did not complete secondary school, through experts and specialists whose credibility is in their performance, dedication and experience rather than in their formal qualifications, to those with the highest academic qualifications. Some have never taught adults before they come to CAE, but have taught children; some are highly experienced adult educators; and some have never taught anyone.

It is a matter of policy with CAE not to require formal teaching qualifications; this enables the program to draw on the skills and enthusiasms of the general community, in the tradition of liberal adult education. At the same time, CAE has a special role in being an organization totally dedicated to adult education, and having a statutory responsibility towards adult education in general in the State. It therefore sees a responsibility for the continuing professional development of its tutors: without making such a program compulsory for any tutor, it offers a program of informal workshops geared to the expressed and observed needs of practising tutors.

However, this program has met only some needs. Not only is the tutor-body large in number and very diverse; there are also structural complications. Firstly, many of the tutors work only a few hours a week for CAE, although others have something approaching a full-time commitment. Secondly, courses operate in many different venues throughout the metropolitan area and beyond. The problem has been described as "the dispersal of tutors in time and space" - the effect is that it is very difficult for tutors to meet each other informally, and that it is hard to schedule formal meetings to suit more than a few at a time, even if they are able to add (unpaid) time to their existing CAE commitment. And thirdly, there are all the problems of communication and morale that exist when so many people are relating part-time to comparatively few full-time staff whose work is seen as different in nature, and who are themselves only part of a diverse and complex organization.

Addressing this situation, the Staff Development Department last year decided to experiment with offering support to tutors from other tutors. An experienced tutor was appointed to spend seven hours a week for six months, mainly with the needs of tutors giving courses in the evening at two suburban high schools. This is the most obviously isolating situation for tutors, and the two venues chosen involved about 60 tutors during this time. Many of these tutors teach only in the suburbs, and some rarely speak to their program staff (full-time administrators) even by phone. They cannot identify other tutors from students at the venue; the responsible person is an evening supervisor who usually has little other connection with CAE and whose job is to organize equipment and be responsible for security.

As a result of this experiment, in 1985 CAE has employed, from a combination of general recurrent funding and Staff Development funding, three Tutor Support Officers at a total of 0.7 (25 hours per week). All three are experienced CAE tutors with formal education qualifications, and they continue to tutor so that they are recognized by other tutors as peers (in fact they prefer to be known as Tutor Support Tutors).

The Tutor Support Tutors have some involvement with the workshop program for tutors. However, their particular job is to work to the needs of individual tutors. Each has responsibility for specific nights at specific suburban venues, and they attempt to make personal contact with the tutors on a pastoral basis, to improve the sense of belonging and so that, as known colleagues, they may be consulted on professional needs if these arise. They contact new tutors whose names are passed on by program staff; if possible, they speak to them by phone before their first course-session, and are often able to provide reassurance and in some cases professional advice. They are also available to any tutor who wishes to talk to them about anything connected with their work for CAE (which is liberally interpreted!) Program staff are increasingly seeing the benefit of using the expertise of the Tutor Support Tutors, either to discuss difficulties themselves, or by referring a tutor to Tutor Support.

The consensus is that Tutor Support is working. The provision is not yet adequate for the need, and there are some major problem areas not yet tackled. One further development has been to appoint an experienced tutor as Evening Supervisor at the largest suburban venue, with the additional brief of working more closely in support of the tutors giving courses there. The essential element is seen by the Tutor Support Tutors to be the fact that they are identified as fellow-tutors - the most supportive member of program staff is still likely to be seen, when a problem arises for a tutor, as the person who decides whether that tutor will have a contract next term. A fellow-tutor may be consulted when the programmer may not. There are habits to be overcome before many long-standing tutors will take advantage of the offer (although some have consulted Tutor Support about their more advanced development needs, and quite a few to discuss planned innovations in their work). New tutors, however, are coming in to a situation which includes Tutor Support from the beginning, and it may be expected that they will make easier use of it.

THE WORKSHOP

The focus of the workshop is threefold: to make participants more imaginatively aware of the experience of sessional teachers as being marginal to the organization for which they work; to inform them of the details of the situation of tutors at CAE and of this particular way of addressing it; and to give an opportunity for considering any parallels and possible applications in participants' own organizations.

The main activities of the workshop are:

a an experiential exercise in "marginality";
b input on CAE tutors and outline of Tutor Support;
c discussion: professional and pastoral needs of sessional tutors;
    structural implications of this situation; and
d application to participants' organizations.

SIX CATEGORY INTERVENTION ANALYSIS: A TOOL FOR SELF AND PEER ASSESSMENT

Sue Knights

Self and Peer Assessment

This workshop starts from the assumption that all of us as professionals working in adult education make some attempt to monitor our own performance in conducting group activities whether these are large formal lectures or informal class discussions. If we are fortunate we may be able to call on the assistance of colleagues in identifying our strengths and weaknesses and in making plans for our personal continuing professional development.

My belief in the need for continual self assessment arises from my own earliest experiences in adult education at the University of Surrey in the early 1970's when John Heron was in the process of establishing the Human Potential Research Project under the wing of the Centre (now the Department) of Adult Education. John Heron's view of the 'educated person' seemed then, as it does still, an excellent model to strive towards,

"an educated person is an awarely self-determining person, in the sense of being able to set objectives, to formulate standards of excellence for the work that realises those objectives, to assess work done in the light of those standards and to be able to modify the objectives, the standards or the work programme in the light of experience and action; and all this in discussion and consultation with other relevant persons." (Heron 1981)

The Six Categories

One of the problems in reflecting on our performance or discussing it with colleagues is the lack of a convenient framework we can use to describe and analyse what is happening in a learning group. I have found the Six Category Intervention Analysis developed by John Heron to be extremely useful in this respect. It consists of six basic intervention categories which a leader might use in conducting a group learning experience. Heron makes the following claims for the categories;

"1. They apply equally to one-to-one, one to group and intergroup interventions.

2. They apply across the board to consultancy, tutoring, counselling, interviewing, therapeutic training, individual or group facilitation, clinical and all professional interventions.

3. They are exhaustive of all desirable and worthwhile types of interventions: that is, they exclude only negative and destructive types of intervention - although they do have their perverted forms as we shall see.

4. They constitute a powerful analytic training tool for anyone who wishes to build up intervention skills in any and every professional field where they are called for. In particular they aid the development of self-monitoring and self-assessment in the helping professions." (Heron, 1975)

The six categories grouped in two divisions are:

Authoritative

1. Prescriptive

Give advice, be judgemental/critical/evaluative. A prescriptive intervention is one that explicitly seeks to direct the behaviour of the group member, especially (though not exclusively) behaviour that is outside or beyond the leader-member interaction.

2. Informative

Be didactic, instruct/inform, interpret. An informative intervention seeks to impart new knowledge and information to the group.

3. Confronting

Be challenging, give direct feedback. A confronting intervention directly challenges the restrictive attitudes/beliefs/behaviour of the group member.

Facilitative

4. Cathartic (tension releasing)

Encourage laughter/crying/trembling/storming. A cathartic intervention seeks to enable the group member to release painful emotion.

5. Catalytic (drawing out)

Be reflective, encourage self-directed problem solving, elicit information from the group. A catalytic intervention seeks to enable the group to learn and develop by self-direction and self-discovery, not only within the context of the learning situation but also beyond it.

6. Supportive

Be approving/confirming/validating. A supportive intervention affirms the work and value of the group member.

Regarding the division into 'Authoritative' and 'Facilitative' Heron points out that,

"There is no implication that any one category is either more or less significant and important than any other; nor is there any implication that authoritative and facilitative interventions can be distinguished by any differences of value. The value of an intervention is a function of the total situation at the time and of the point and purpose of the practitioner's role in relation to his client. Each of the six in an appropriate context can have a high value." (Heron, 1975)

A complete explanation of the theoretical background to the development of the six categories is given in Heron's 1975 paper which also includes a description of "degenerative" versions of each with typically Heronesque titles like, "seductive overteach" "trigger finger", "smiling demolition" and "Nut cracking: or too deep too soon". The paper by Boud (an early Associate of the Human Potential Research Project) and Kilty (now Director of the Project) gives an illustration of how a group of colleagues can conduct self-appraisal sessions.

Outline of the Workshop

The first part of the Workshop consists of an overview of the Six Categories. This is followed by a period of reflection in pairs during which participants are invited to apply the Six Categories to their own practice and identify strengths and weaknesses. This activity offers the opportunity for one person to practice catalytic interventions whilst the other thinks aloud about his or her skills in each of the six categories. Finally the group re-assembles to discuss how this type of analysis might be used and how skills might be developed in each of the six areas. (In a longer workshop we would then move on to the practice of different categories of intervention.)

References

Heron, J. (1975) Six Category Intervention Analysis, Human Potential Research Project, University of Surrey, Guildford GU2 5XH England

Heron, J. (1981) Assessment, Human Potential Research Project (address shown above)

Boud, D. and Kilty, J. (1981) Self-appraisal for university teachers, a guide for workshop leaders, Occasional Publication No.19. Tertiary Education Research Centre, University of New South Wales, Kensington NSW 2033

COMPETENCY ANALYSIS FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPERS

Dr Adrian D. Geering

1. INTRODUCTION

In the Associate Diploma in Training and Development at the South Australian College of Advanced Education, all students undertake an initial unit of study entitled, "Competency Analysis for Human Resource Developers". This workshop will include the following: an examination of the structure of the unit; how students determine their level of competency in various areas of Human Resource Development (HRD); how status for previous studies at tertiary level is granted; how previous experience is evaluated for partial exemption in units of study; how individual study programmes are determined; and how the problem of external students are addressed.

2. STRUCTURE OF THE UNIT

The aims of the unit, "Competency Analysis for Human Resource Developers", are as follows:

- To review alternative approaches to Human Resource Development.
- To examine the role of the Human Resource Developer.
- To introduce the concept of Career Development.
- To explore the structure of the Associate Diploma in Training and Development.
- To review status and exemption procedures in the Associate Diploma in Training and Development.
- To evaluate prior learning and relevance to Human Resource Development.

The unit is structured into four sections of different lengths:

- Study hints and essay writing
- Characteristics of HRD
- Personal and career developments
- Structure of the Associate Diploma in Training and Development.

The first section is a gentle introduction to tertiary education for our students many of whom have not undertaken any formal post, secondary study before.

The next topic introduces the students to the whole field of study - HRD. They then evaluate how their own career and development relate to this field. Finally, they evaluate their prior learning, relate it to the Associate Diploma in Training and Development, and plan their study programme.

3. COMPETENCY ANALYSIS

Gurr (1981, pp.8-10) identified competency areas and a large number of competencies following personal consultation with overseas experts including Professor Malcolm Knowles at Nova University, Professor Len Nadler at George Washington University and John Kenny at the Department of Education in Ontario, Canada. These areas and competencies formed the basis of a needs analysis questionnaire which was validated by an advisory committee of highly regarded HRD practitioners in South Australia. The results from the one hundred and seventy-two respondents in the survey were used to develop the Associate Diploma in Training and Development Course at the Underdale Campus of the South Australian College of Advanced Education in 1980.

Students who undertake the award use these competency areas and competencies as a checklist to evaluate prior learning, to aid in decisions about which elective units to choose, and to determine what level of exemption to apply for.

4. STATUS

Status is the process whereby the College recognises studies of tertiary standard at Associate Diploma level or above, completed at other recognised institutions as equivalent to units offered at this college, or appropriate to the course in which the sstudent applying for status is enrolled, rather than requiring that student to duplicate those previous studies.

Status may be granted to maximum of 50 percent of the total point value (72 points) of the Associate Diploma in Training and Development. Full documentation, including specific details of each unit studied, must be included with the status application. Usually a 10 year limit on previous studies applies.

5. EXEMPTION

Exemption is internal recognition of previous relevant life experience as a partial fulfilment of requirements for a specific unit. This is determined by the unit co-ordinator in conjunction with publicly verifiable evidence provided by the student.

Exemption may be given for one, two or three points. All decisions are final and non-negotiable. When exemption is given a summary sheet or letter detailing this is sent to the student. Additional work is required to be undertaken for any unit in which exemption is granted. If students are granted exemption for 1, 2 or 3 points out of 4 points for a unit, they must still enrol for the unit and negotiate for the appropriate amount of work. For example:

In ATD69, Training Needs Analysis, the assessment requirements are as follows for this four point unit:

One essay and three exercises.

Exemption reduces the required work as follows:

Exemption Granted	Assessment Required
one point	one essay & two exercises
two points	one essay & one exercise
three points	one essay

The criteria for claiming exemption for prior learning are:

1. The learning should be publicly verifiable.
2. The learning should have a subject matter or knowledge base.
3. The learning should be equivalent to tertiary level work in terms of quality.
4. The learning should be related to the total subject field.

5. One point exemption is equivalent to 40 hours of work.

6. PATTERNS OF STUDY AND WORKLOAD

Students may progress through the course at their own pace with advice from the course co-ordinator. It is not expected that full-time students would study on an external basis. The expected total workload for one unit, to the value of 4 points taken over one term or ten weeks, is sixteen hours per week. This includes field work, workshops sessions, laboratory work, assignments and private study time.

A part-time internal or external student may study a maximum of 8 points per term or a minimum of 4 points per term. This means that a student should have the following time available for study:

4 points or 16 hours/week
8 points or 32 hours/week

The pattern of study for a student is individually planned and approved as part of the assignment work in the first study unit ATD21: Competency Analysis for Human Resource Developers.

Generally students undertake core units first, then electives and finally the HRD Project. A summary of units offered is to be found in Appendix A.

7. EXTERNAL STUDIES

Generally, external studies courses experience an attrition rate of 35 percent - 40 percent of students enrolled in an initial unit. Initially the drop out rate in this unit was over 50 percent of the initial intake. Various strategies were used to try and reduce this attrition, including the following:

1. Course Co-ordinator was appointed the unit co-ordinator.
2. The unit was restructured and the unit materials were redesigned into four sections.
3. A three booklet format for materials was introduced - booklet 1 unit information, booklet 2 study guide and booklet 3 readings.
4. Booklet 2 was rewritten into an interactive format.
5. A text book, readings and audio tape were added to unit resources.
6. Personal visits were undertaken by staff to external students in Brisbane, Sydney and Melbourne.
7. The assessment was reduced from 5 pieces to 3 pieces of work.

As a result the attrition rate has been reduced to 19.2 percent (1984) and 25 percent (1985). Feedback from students indicate that the new structure of the unit and its materials are highly appreciated.

8. CONCLUSION

This paper has described the initial unit of the Associate Diploma in training and Development at the South Australian College of Advanced Education. As such it represents an innovative attempt to recognize prior learning and experience of adult learners.

It also attempts to give new students an overview of a field of study or a conceptual framework at the beginning of a course. From feedback obtained, it has proved to be a worthwhile learning experience for most students.

References

Gurr, J. "A Study of Training and Development Practitioner Roles", Training and Development in Australia, September, 1981, pp. 1-10.

APPENDIX A

Study Plan

SUMMARY OF UNITS OFFERED

Unit Code	Name of Unit	Pre-requisite	Point Value
PART A	- Competency Analysis. All students begin with this unit		
ATD21	Competency Analysis for Human Resource Developers	Nil	4
PART B	-Core. All students complete these units		
ATD63	Teaching Methods	ATD21	4
ATD66	Instructional Technology	ATD21	4
ATD69	Training Needs Analysis	ATD21	4
ATD72	Course Design	ATD69	4
PART C	Project. All students complete this unit		
ATD30	Human Resource Development Project	ATD21	16
PART D	-Elective units. Students require 36 points to be made up of an approved combination of electives		
ATD33	Evaluating Training Programmes	Nil	4
ATD36	Communication	Nil	4
ATD39	Group Dynamics	Nil	4
ATD42	Counselling and Interviewing	Nil	4
ATD45	Learning Contract	Nil	4
ATD48	Learning Theory	Nil	4
ATD51	Organisational Behaviour	Nil	4
ATD54	Psychology of Work	Nil	4
ATD57	Sociology of the Working Environment	Nil	4
ATD60	Concepts for Human Resource Developers	Nil	4

MANAGING CHANGE IN ADULT EDUCATION

Geoff Scott

A. INTRODUCTION

The following themes cannot be ignored if change efforts in TAFE and Adult Education are to be effective:

(a) Change is a learning process which requires very careful planning and should follow the principles of adult learning. It is not an event characterized, for example, by the production of a set of materials, a curriculum document, a policy statement etc - these things are simply preconditions for the change process to get going.

The tendency to put most energy into the development of "things" (e.g. curriculum documents) and minimal energy into the hard part - the process of helping people learn how to use them - still pervades many approaches to educational change.

(b) A key finding from research into the effective management of change concerns the need for people in one role in TAFE or Adult Education (e.g. a principal or consultant) to understand and remember what it feels like to be involved in change from the perspective of those in another role (e.g. a teacher, head teacher or student).

It has been found, for instance, that teachers' experience of work is basically one of isolation, uncertainty and a degree of guilt and defensiveness about the quality of their teaching. It has been suggested that these findings could also be true for those occupying other roles in TAFE and Adult Education.

It is felt that an understanding of what motivates people to initiate and stick with a change is a vital foundation upon which planning for implementation should be based.

(c) Because of this, personal, continuous and open communication becomes an important precondition for successful change and organizational operation (it has been seen, e.g., that the effective leader is the person who is out of the office, interested in and knowledgeable about what is happening, can listen to staff and leads by example not by regulation).

(d) As will be seen in this reading we are pretty certain now about the factors which influence effective implementation of change. But it seems that the mix of factors necessary varies depending on whether the change is small (e.g. a teacher changing his/her approach to a topic) or large (e.g. the implementation of EEO Policy).

(e) Change goes through various phases from a vague idea or sense of disquiet with current practice, to a decision to adopt a particular change, then on through initial implementation to the decision to continue, alter or discontinue the change effort.

Research indicates that this process is much longer than often expected (an average of 3-5 years) and that too much energy is spent in some phases (e.g. the development and adoption phase) and too little in others (e.g. the implementation phase).

(f) A proposed change is not really put into practice (implemented) until the way teachers and other people involved do things has changed in the direction(s) envisaged in the change proposal.

Furthermore, until we can establish that students have benefitted from all this effort, we cannot claim that implementation has occurred.

In other words implementation is not about the idea but the use of the idea.

(g) "Benefits" is a relative term. The assessment of whether a change is beneficial depends on the value system of the people who make this assessment - Darkenwald and Merriam (1982: Ch 2) suggest five major orientations towards education each of which has different assumptions, definitions of what is valuable and different implications for what educational changes would be worthwhile and what ones wouldn't.

(h) We have seen that what happens at the adoption phase can influence the extent to which a change actually gets implemented. Adoption and implementation are not discrete steps at all but significantly overlap.

(i) Rational discourse and ordering people to change is likely, at best, to lead to minimal compliance. It certainly won't lead to the commitment for and understanding of what the change means in terms of new behaviours, attitudes and knowledge.

Legislation is seen as a step which can force compliance at a minimal level from these who refuse to change. It does little, in itself, however, to help those who wish to learn the new skills, knowledge, or attitudes implied by the change.

All the above themes/research findings come together when we look at the vital phase of implementation. Fullan (1982-54) defines implementation as.... "the process of putting into practice an idea, program, or set of activities new to the people attempting or expected to change". He suggests (1982: Ch 5) fifteen factors which are causally related to implementation. The more factors supporting implementation, the more change in practice will be accomplished.

B. OVERVIEW OF FACTORS AFFECTING IMPLEMENTATION

Factors Affecting Implementation

A. Characteristics of the Change
1. Need and relevance of the change
2. Clarity
3. Complexity
4. Quality and practicality of program (materials etc)

B. Characteristics at the Regional Level
5. The history of innovative attempts
6. The adoption process
7. Central administrative support and involvement
8. Staff development (in-service) and participation
9. Time-line and information system (evaluation)
10. Community characteristics

C. Characteristics at the College Level
11. The principal
12. Teacher-teacher relations
13. Teacher characteristics and orientations

D. Characteristics External to the Local System
14. Role of government
15. External assistance

BOX 1

Degree of Implementation (In order of Importance)

1. Statement of Intention (which usually formalizes the decision to Adopt a Change Idea)
2. Required administrative, Staffing and Structural Changes are Undertaken and are effective
3. Staff Effectively perform new skills and demonstrate desired attitudes and knowledge necessary for the change to work
4. People (usually students) for whom change is designed become involved and benefit by learning new skills, attitudes, knowledge.

BOX 2

FIGURE 1

Figure 1 summarizes Fullan's 15 factors (Box 1) and shows the connection between these and how we can judge when an innovation is fully implemented (Box 2). it will be seen that full implementation cannot occur until levels three and four in Box 2 are achieved. Implementation, therefore, has not occurred if only levels 1 and 2 have been attained.

The more factors supporting implementation (Box 1) the more likely we are to achieve levels three and four in Box 2.

Note how well most of the factors in Box 1 take into account adult learning principles. Note also how well the factors take into account the themes summarized in the above Introduction.

C. DISCUSSION OF FULLANS 15 FACTORS WHICH AFFECT IMPLEMENTATION

These are summarised into 4 clusters in Box 1, Figure 1.

A. CHARACTERITICS OF THE CHANGE

1. Need

If the people who are to implement a change don't see a priority need for it, implementation is less likely to succeed. Colleges/groups which take a problem-solving rather than a bureaucratic orientation to their work tend to see the assessment of general need as being of great importance. The "practicality ethic" of teachers explains why the assessment of need is so significant. It also draws attention to the vital role of motivation in the change process (motivation is central to all adult learning). People want to see why change will be worth all the effort.

2. Clarity

If what a change means in practice (at the "how to" level) is not clear implementation is likely to fail. Clarity cannot be delivered on a platter - it can only come by those who must implement the change being involved in collaboratively working out what this change will mean in terms of new ways of doing things (involvement is a key principle of adult learning). Teachers like to see that those who are promoting a change are able to clearly outline what it means in practice and where it fits into the broader framework of adult education.

Clarity comes depending on the process adopted - e.g. on-going staff-development programs which deal with problems of implementation can be an ideal way to promote clarity.

Fullan (1982: 58) reminds us, however, that greater clarity is not an end in itself... "very simple and insignificant changes can be clear, while more difficult and worth while ones may not be amenable to easy clarification." This leads us onto the complexity factor.

3. Complexity

The research of Berman & Mclaughlin (cited Fullan 1982: 59) indicates that complex innovations successfully achieve less of their goals than simpler ones but they result in more teacher change.

The main discovery is one concerning an adult learning principle - Complex changes are more likely to be implemented if they proceed in small manageable steps ("digestible chunks" if you like) i.e. break complex changes into incremental components. This will take into account the natural reaction of those who must implement the idea to feel totally overwhelmed and seek to opt out of the process. A logical, manageable and organised approach to complex learning tasks is an important adult learning principle.

4. Quality and Practicality of the Program

Teachers can only give a change meaning when they have available quality materials which have been tested and used is real learning situations. "Learning materials especially at the time of initial implementation must pass the test of the "practicality ethic". (Fullan 1982: 60)

However, at the same time, there must be opportunity for teachers to adapt materials to suit local conditions. This is where on-going staff development can come in. Also, materials must not be produced in isolation from the process of working out exactly how they can be used. This was the problem of the 60s where acres of materials were produced by people remote from the daily reality/context of their use.

The way adoption decisions are made and the haste with which people rush through to initial implementation can prevent the production of relevant and tangible program materials. We have found that adoption decisions often are made on the grounds of political necessity or perceived need with no time for development. Put differently, when adoption is more important than implementation, decisions are frequently made without follow-up or preparation time necessary to generate adequate materials.

There is a dilemma inherent in the above. We need, on the one hand to give people a clear picture, using resource materials, of what is proposed. But we also must realise that people best learn by doing - i.e. by playing an active role in materials' development. The best way to deal with this dilemma is to recognise that some changes are amenable to explicit solutions and advanced development of materials whereas others require more adaptive, complex resolutions over time. However, we must not forget that, for complex changes, teachers and others must experience some sense of meaning, benefit and practicality quite early on in the process of implementing the change.

Fullan's (1982: 62) conclusion to this section is vital.

"Concrete, demonstration-type materials stressing specificity may go a certain distance in improving meaning, but this emphasis misses the main point, unless one believes that people can learn complex change simply by being told and shown what to do. Greater specificity can be harmful if it overloads and overwhelms people with information. As with other aspects of change, clarification and skill in using new resources is a process in which demonstration materials may represent the starting point - but it is what people develop in their minds and actions that counts. Change is a difficult personal and social process of unlearning old ways and learning new ones. Deeper meaning and solid change must be born over time; one must struggle through ambivalence before one is sure of oneself that the new version is workable and right (or unworkable and wrong and should be rejected). Good change is hard work; however, we may find comfort in the realisation that engaging in bad change or avoiding needed change may be even harder on us."

B. CHARACTERISTICS AT THE REGIONAL LEVEL

Whereas Section A in Box 1, Figure 1 concerns the nature of the change itself, Sections B, C, D concern the social conditions of change - i.e. the setting in which people work. We have seen how important this is for motivation, commitment and have noted the central role in change given to a positive atmosphere and personal communication at work. This explains why the same program can be a great success in one region or college and an unmitigated disaster at another.

5. The Region's History of Innovative Attempts

Research over the last 12 years has shown that most attempts at collective change in education fail and failure means frustration, wasted time, feelings of incompetence and lack of support and disillusionment. Sarason (1971: 219-22) states it this way ..."the more teachers and others have had negative experiences with previous implementation attempts,.... the more cynical or apathetic they will be about the next change presented regardless of the merit of the new idea or program."

I have argued throughout that the subjective experience of, and meaning given to, change is important. The corollary of this is that these subjective meanings carry over from one situation/experience to the next.

So if your change attempt is greeted with cynicism and disinterest it may be genuine disinterest in the content of the change or it may be a quite justified scepticism resulting from very negative experiences in previous change attempts.

6. The adoption Process

What happens at the adoption phase profoundly influences subsequent levels of implementation.

7. District Administrative Support

We need to distinguish here between small scale (e.g. classroom) change and Regional or System Wide Change. Teachers will not take attempts at system-wide change seriously unless central administrators demonstrate through their actions that they should.

A supportive productive and effective approach to change can be promoted by the central administrator who visits Colleges to see how attempts are going, supports people to express difficulties and follows through on requests for help during implementation.

As difficult as their job may be, the research is clear. "The Chief Executive Officer and other key central administrators set the conditions for implementation to the extent that they show specific forms of support and active knowledge and understanding of the realities of attempting to put a change into practice." (Fullan 1982:65).

8. Staff Development and Participation

Since implementation concerns learning new skills, knowledge and attitudes, Staff Development should have a central role in organising, supporting and monitoring the implementation process. It should do this by not establishing general interest programs or enrichment classes but should follow standard procedures for short course development.

This would involve starting with an assessment of what common problems teachers and others are experiencing in implementing various TAFE/Adult Education Programs. From this groups with the same area of difficulty meet regularly with practical experts and colleagues to work out how to solve this implementation problem. This will also provide support and breakdown the isolation experienced by so many adult educators. This type of staff development activity would always focus on what we can now do/try to improve the situation in the class, at the College. The group would try these solutions and reconvene to discuss their success.

"Simply put, most forms of inservice training are not designed to provide the ongoing, ineractive, cumulative learning necessary to develop new conceptions, skills and behaviour. Failure to realise that there is a need for in-service work during implementation is a common problem" (Fullan, 1982:66). We must not forget that implementation is a process of resocialisation based on personal interaction.

It appears as if many staff development/inservice programs are unaware of, or ignore the adult learning principles.

9. Time Line and Information Systems (Evaluation)

Research cited by Fullan (1982) indicates that few reformers have a reasonable time perspective for implementation. This usually results from their failure to realise that implementation is a learning (and unlearning) process which, from the teachers perspective, is fraught with uncertainty and risk.

Central administrators know about the complexity of the adoption process whereas practitioners know the complexities of the implementation process. There is an adequate understanding of the different realities of each group.

For example, there is often great pressure from government for news that a new initiative has been a great success. Consequently pressure is brought to bear for the production of written reports and statistics to demonstrate this (often within 12 months of the adoption decision). If this pressure is too great energy goes into demonstrating compliance and little attention is given to actually changing anything.

Unrealistic time lines can mean that quality materials don't arrive on time, people burn out under unreasonable pressure, orientation and ongoing training for implementation are ignored or poorly organised, communication is hurried and frequently overlooked or misinterpreted.

Summative evaluation (i.e. evidence of student achievement) should not occur until practitioners have effectively implemented the innovation. Put another way, formative evaluation should be on going and occur before any attempt at summative evaluation is made.[1] Too early an emphasis on summative evaluation can often mean you are evaluating a non event (ie. you are evaluating a situation where nothing has changed in daily practice at all.)

"Emphasis on collecting and using diagnostic information about student learning and other implementation problems has been found to be strongly related to school improvement." (Cohen, 1981 cited in Fullan, 1982:70).

10. Community Characteristics

Research cited by Fullan (1982) indicates that (1) Most school/college communities are usually not involved in implementation (2) They can become aroused for/against certain innovations depending on when and how they are told about what is happening. Usually this arousal is achieved through people "representing" communities rather than the "grass roots" who typically remain uninvolved. (3) Neither highly stable nor highly turbulent school communities constitute effective environments for implementation.

C. COLLEGE LEVEL FACTORS

Most evidence cited in previous readings indicates that the College (or school) is the unit of change. This is where the key role in change of the principal, College atmosphere & teacher relationships is seen.

11. The Role of the Principal

All major research on innovation in schools shows that the principal's approach to his/her role strongly influences the success of change. We have found that principals who conceive their role as education leader and promote a positive, enthusiastic attitude to work in their school profoundly influence effective implementation.

Like central administrators, if they show by their actions that they support a change, it is more likely to be implemented.

We have seen that the subjective world of the principal is one of regular administration, paper work, interrupted meetings, constant minor crisis and that developing the new role as "facilitator of desirable change" must be a learning (and unlearning) process in which the benefits must out weigh the costs.

12. Teacher-teacher Relationships

The theory of change outlined in this paper and our own subjective experiences of working in TAFE and Adult Education both point to the importance of peer-relationships at the College level. Interaction is the cornerstone of learning new skills, attitudes and knowledge.

"The research I have been reviewing provides direct confirmation that the quality of working relationships among teachers is strongly related to implementation. Collegiality, open communication, trust, support and help, interaction and morale are all closely related". (Fullan, 1982:72).

---

[1] Formative evaluation is the focus for staff development during initial implementation. Success in implementation (- i.e. practitioners are seen to have changed) is the equivalent of achieving Level 3 in Box 2, Fig. 1. Only then do we move onto Summative Education - i.e. the assessment of whether the students have learnt/benefitted. (See Level 3, Box 2, Fig. 1.).

Principals, co-ordinators, head teachers are the people who set up/break down the quality of peer relationships. It appears that much work still needs to be done to work out exactly how to set up a positive College/School atmosphere (some hints are given in Factor 13).

13. Teacher Characteristics and Orientations

Research on the connection between teacher characteristics (e.g. length of service, level of education etc.) and effective change is inconclusive. Apparently it is not level of education, length of service that is important. Rather it is under what conditions teachers have worked. This is a restatement of factors outlined above (e.g. Factors 5 & 12).

One teacher trait which does appear to be related to successful implementation is "teacher's sense of efficacy". "Efficacy" concerns the teacher's belief that he/she can help all students not just the highly motivated, highly intelligent.

It has been found that, when a higher proportion of staff in a school have this orientation, implementation of and interest in change is more likely.

"Sense of efficacy" is related to the atmosphere of the particular College/School. Fullan (1982:72) gives some guidelines to principals, co-ordinators and head teachers on what might be done to promote a better staff atmosphere and sense of staff efficacy.

"School improvement is most surely and thoroughly achieved when:

Teachers engage in frequent, continuous and increasing concrete and precise talk about teaching practice (as distinct from teacher characteristics and failings, the social lives of teachers, the foibles and failures of students and their families, and the unfortunate demands of society on the school). By such talk, teachers build up a shared language adequate to the complexity of teaching, capable of distinguishing one practice and its virtue from another....

Teachers and administrators frequently observe each other teaching, and provide each other with useful (if potentially frightening) evaluation of their teaching. Only such observation and feedback can provide shared referents for the shared language of teaching, and both demand and provide the precision and concreteness which makes the talk about teaching useful.

Teachers and administrators plan, design, research, evaluate and prepare teaching materials together. The most prescient observations remain academic ("just theory") without the machinery to act on them. By joint work on materials, teachers and administrators share the considerable burden of development required by long-term improvement, confirm their emerging understanding of their approach, and make rising standards for their work attainable by them and by their students.

Teachers and administrators teach each other the practice of teaching."

D. THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

We recognise that many change initiatives originate from the context of the broader society and are often channelled through to educational authorities by governmental agencies or pressure groups.

14. Government Agencies

Without labouring the point, educational, political, social and economic change are intimately related.

Educational priorities are set according to the political priorities of the party in power and the lobbying of interest groups, government bureaucracies and elected representatives. As we have seen educational change, in the form of a new policy, can be mandatory and most interest is in the official adoption of policy rather than capacity to implement.

"Government agencies have been preoccupied with policy and program adoption. Until recently they vastly underestimated the problems and processes of implementation. We have a classic case of two entirely different worlds - the policy maker on the one hand and the local practitioner on the other hand. To the extent that each side is ignorant of the subjective world of the other, reform will fail - and the extent is great." (Fullan, 1982:74). This is the key lesson for everyone who has a role in educational change.

Interaction, at the personal level is the way to overcome this problem. Meaning is impossible when interaction is brief, impersonal, in the form of, e.g., abstract reports. This type of poor communication leads to misinterpretation, false attribution of motives, feelings of being unappreciated or misunderstood, disillusionment and finally an unhealthy "stand off" between people who should be working with not against each other.

15. External Assistance

It is agreed that many innovations could not be initiated and implemented (in, at least, pilot form) without external funding.

When such funding has an unrealistic time frame (e.g. 6 or 12 months) then problems arise.

Also external assistance in the form of a consultant or materials is often available to help local people implement policy. When this assistance is temporary, abstract and impractical it can actually work against effective implementation.

D. FACTORS AFFECTING CONTINUATION

This phase of change is not separate from, but part of, the whole change process of which adoption and implementation are other stages.

What is done at the adoption and implementation phase will affect whether or not a successfully implemented and beneficial change continues. In a sense continuation involves another adoption decision but it also involves working out, very early on during implementation, what is necessary for the change to become a normal, on-going part of provision.

This is especially true for Federally funded innovations. According to Fullan (1982:76) few of these ever last beyond the period of federal funding.

For continuation to occur we need to work out how the project can be funded out of recurrent monies and we need to encourage those key people who can support continuation to develop some *personal* understanding of and commitment to the change. We must take into account that original staff may leave and that the whole process of helping new staff learn the skills, attitudes and knowledge necessary for the change to work must be repeated. Few programs do this effectively.

The continuation process is really neverending and cyclical - i.e. we need to assess if there is a need for the change to continue in its current form or if there is a need to adopt a new approach, support its implementation, decide if the new approach should continue and so on. Continuation is then, a constant process of critical evaluation. Fullan (1982:77) connects evaluation to the assessment of five different types of outcome.

1. Degree of implementation (Levels 1-3, Box 2, Figure 1)
2. Attitude toward innovation (Teachers' attitudes - see Level 3, Students' attitudes see Level 4).
3. Impact (a) Student's benefits (Level 4, Box 2).
    (b) Teachers' benefits (Level 3, Box 2).
    (c) Organisational benefits.
4. Continuation or institutionalisation
5. Attitude to Improvement in TAFE/Adult Education - this is a "meta-variable" which can only be assessed over time. It concerns whether or not those involved in one change effort are favourably disposed towards engaging in subsequent innovations.

E. CONCLUSION

This paper brings together all of the themes of change. It is *not* intended to be a "formula" for effective change. Rather it provides a way of thinking about and making sense of change.

How you approach the reading depends on what role you currently have in TAFE/Adult Education. The principal might start with Factor 11, the Administrator with Factor 7, the teacher with Factor 1. Each person must then try to work out how to contend with the other 14 Factors.

We have seen that "the crux of change involves the development of meaning in relation to a new idea, program, set of activities" (Fullan, 1982:79). Each individual develops his/her own subjective meaning. Each individual is part of a complex, loosely organised, messy social system occupied by other individuals who also have their own subjective worlds.

There is no one theory of change. Effective implementation requires an imaginative understanding of all the factors outlined in this reading and an ability to adapt them to the particular change in hand.

"This guide to change enables us to locate very specific factors, to observe how they work in concrete situations, and to explain why they function as they do, with what consequences for school improvement.

The "solution" to the management of educational change is straight forward. All we need to do is to take the 15 factors....change them in a positive direction and then orchestrate them so that they work smoothly together. The mind may be excused for boggling." (Fullan, 1982:80).

Some of the themes discussed at the start of the paper should give guidelines on how to influence the 15 causes of implementation discussed above.

References

Fullan, M. (1982), Meaning of Education Change, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto.

Sarason, S. (1971), The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change, Allyn & Bacon.

COMPUTER-BASED INTERACTIVE VIDEO:

THE CROSSROAD OF RESOURCES

Dr Brian Baldie

Dr Michael Keating, Secretary of Employment and Industrial Relations in the absence of Mr Ralph Willis, MP made the following statement during the opening session of the Workshop on Microelectronics Training Needs in September 1983:

> Attention is often paid at the end of speeches, papers and reports regarding technological change to the need to examine the 'human factors' associated with the introduction of new technologies. Inevitably this involves mentioning the considerable training and retraining demands such technologies will place upon our education and training systems.
>
> Unfortunately, all too often these 'final chapter' matters are not investigated in any detail, or reference is made to the need for further investigation by yet another government body. It is time that discussion of these issues moved beyond this stage.

At this conference we have the opportunity to overcome this problem for as a group assembled to consider human resource development we are now in a good position to move to the investigation of technological developments and their potential value to the training process and in turn the demands they place upon trainers to produce a supply of skilled microelectronic specialists.

The contribution of the microprocessor to the classroom and training room has not as yet realised anywhere near its potential. A computer-based inter-active video system unlike many instructional innovations in the past requires the integration of a number of media and the utilization of a range of trainer skills (Figure 1). The successful blending of technology, creativity and sound instructional design principles leads to the creation of powerful and sophisticated instructional programs which are potentially more effective than conventional training approaches.

The generally accepted advantage of computer-based training (CBT), whether involving the use of video or not, is its ability to cater for the needs of the individual through the presentation of programs which provide flexibility and hand over control to the learner. Efficiency, motivation, consolidation, reinforcement, are all words which can be easily applied to this form of instructional system. The literature goes on to identify numerous positive features:

- information presentation with immediate updating facility
- drill and practice of routine operations
- individualised instruction
- simulations of dangerous, costly or geographically distant work situations
- effective internal communication with consistent delivery
- accurate and current record-keeping
- accountability through clearly defined objectives

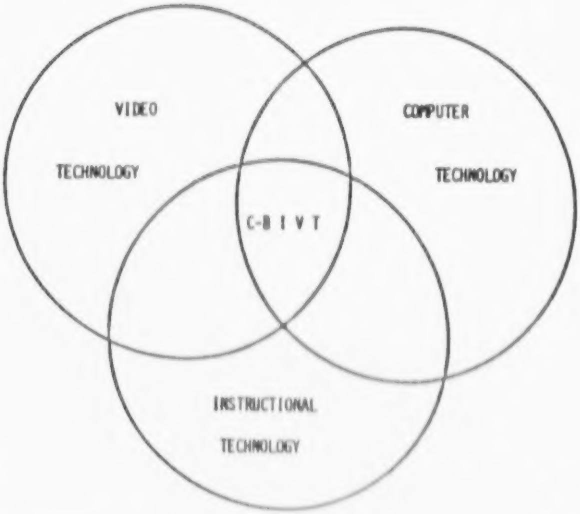

Figure 1

- with video it offers realistic presentation
- reduces need for paper documentation
- caters for the different cognitive styles of learners
- economical use of trainer's time when only a small number need to receive training.

The technical aspects of the various interactive video hardware systems will be discussed during the workshop demonstration session that follows. Here I will consider the demands placed on the trainer during the development of software and in turn the needs of the learner for which the material is being produced. In this way we will fix, to some extent, the microelectronic variables and focus upon the human input and interaction.

Interactive video takes the trainer beyond: the threading of a projector, the loading of an audio cassette recorder so that it plays the correct side, the adjustment of an overhead projector so that the 120 eager pairs of eyes can see the detailed (but often too small) information, to a complex integration of technical, instructional, creative and managerial skills which have to be supplied or assembled by the trainer. The following skills represent what I believe to be the minimal competencies necessary for the effective development of CBIVT.

Technical Skills:

- keyboard skills
- connect monitor, V.C.R., computer
- install interface cards
- diagnose simple faults, e.g. cable loose
- audio dub
- transfer in-house video from 3/4" to 1/2" format
- use of video camera
- lighting of area to be used for video production
- copy computer disks
- install DOS
- use communication software
- communicate difficulty to technician
- carry out simple maintenance procedures and damage prevention steps, e.g. disk drives in transit

Instructional Skills:

- establishment of objectives
- effective task analysis
- flowcharting of instructional events
- question writing
- response writing
- ability to motivate
- reinforcement
- phasing
- revision.

Creative Skills:

- writing of text screens
- production of video presentation
- integration of video and text segments
- writing of accompanying documentation
- adaptation of existing material.

Managerial Skills:

- communication of requirements
- obtaining funds
- documenting proposals
- creating enthusiasm in others
- scheduling and maintaining deadlines
- obtaining team cooperation.

In general terms the individual or team needs to possess computer literacy, basic video production, recording and playback skills and the ability to organise material into a package which is motivating, interesting and consistent with the identified objectives. The ability to perceive learning paths beyond those followed by the trainer is vital if the interactive program is to permit learner freedom. All too often teachers and trainers use their own learning style as the model for their teaching. If interactive computer-based programs are so conceived they will possibly be less effective than face to face instruction. Diversification and lateral thought are central to the planning stages of CBIVT for unless there is a complex network of learning structures underlying the content and evaluation then the result will be an electronic textbook.

From the consideration of the demands placed upon the producer of computer-based interactive video training programs we can see that it is not an area into which the trainer should rush enthusiastically but unprepared. They will firstly need to develop the prerequisite skills or gain sufficient understanding to assemble a team which boasts these skills. Obviously as one assembles more people to develop software the coordination function of the trainer or organiser grows quite markedly. In the shadow of Government cuts to spending at the school, university and now TAFE levels the opportunity to develop such skills does not look very bright and predictions that CBIVT may only develop in company training rooms may well become a reality.

When cuts in spending occur we adopt a "hold the line" outlook and put all our energy into securing what we already have. Unfortunately this draws the focus from innovation and the consideration of alternative strategies to concern about class sizes, course offerings and staffing levels.

What the trainer must consider constantly are the overall objectives of a training program which might include:

- ways of more effectively using the trainer's time in the training process
- means of training all members of staff without removing high proportions of the workforce at any one time
- the employment of cost effective training methods
- provision of remediation or assistance to give all an equal opportunity to acquire knowledge or develop skills
- presentation of training material of direct relevance to employees within a specific department or company
- accurate compilation and storage of training performance records
- ability to present training programs in languages other than English
- presentation of training in procedural operations in a standardised form
- assurance that all trainees reach the established criterion level of performance
- regular updating of materials at a minimal cost
- extension of training periods beyond the working day of the trainer
- development of "professional" quality materials

It should be these and not past practices or budget size that determine whether or not a move to the adoption of CBT or CBIVT is warranted. This in no way suggests a blind movement to the establishment of "robot" or "electronic" teachers but it does quite clearly indicate that we can no longer afford to have a "human" teacher asking and marking ten questions, thousands of times each year. I am sure that we are all pleased to know that QANTAS tests each member on a flight crew before they depart. If an individual does not turn in a perfect score on emergency procedures they do not join that specific flight and undergo retraining.

On the other hand we would not see the need for a training officer to ask these questions from an established bank of possibilities. When I last spoke with QANTAS cabin crew training staff, earlier this year, a training officer was still asking the questions. Here is an excellent example of where all concerned would agree that this routine duty should be undertaken by a computer which has the patience and single-minded dedication needed to effectively complete this task.

Just as we face potential difficulties in reallocating resources to enable trainers to develop their own computer and video skills so too does the nation have aproblem in developing general microelectronic skills in its workforce.

J. Barry Ritchie, Chairman, NTC Standing Committee on Training for Advanced Technology states:

> Australia's comparatively poor economic performance (measured in terms of per capita GDP) over the past 25 years has been associated with relatively low national effort in education and training (measured in terms of the proportion of GDP devoted to it) compared with other OECD countries. An increased quantity and improved quality of effort in education and training would be one of the most strategic and effective means of arresting the relative decline in Australia's standard of living. (1984:xv)

Ritchie goes on to reiterate and expand on this strong statement:

> Coming to terms with the exciting potential of microelectronic technology cannot be done effectively within the constraints of the resources which Australian society presently allocates to education and training through households, governments and market processes. Australia simply isn't applying enough resources to the task, when viewed in comparative perspective with the more prosperous of the OECD countries. Just as importantly, Australia has not been utilising the resources it is devoting to education and training as effectively and innovatively as it could. The cost of continuing in this fashion is continuing economic decline relative to the prosperous OECD countries with which Australians habitually compare their standard of living. This is the most fundamental of the social choices which the microelectronic revolution poses for Australian society. (1984:xx)

We must face the fact that as microelectronic equipment becomes more and more sophisticated and specialised the role of the general training organisation will decline. In Silicon Valley and Japan it has been found that the obsolescence of training skills, content and the microelectronic capital equipment itself has forced training from the general institution to the company where knowledge and equipment are available. Universities and Colleges of TAFE that can exhibit only 8 bit personal computers or primitive robotic simulators are not really prepared to face the training demands of the future.

At a lesser level of electronic complexity there is an increasing demand for the preparation of staff for the automated office. Reviews of business software in computer and business magazines, the proliferation of texts describing the use and function of databases, spreadsheets and word processing packages, together with a number of video presentations by "experts" testify to the need for information about the use of these powerful and complex business resources. All appear to agree that the handbook alone will not provide the user with sufficient knowledge and skill to get the most from each of these quite costly software packages.

The supplementary teaching materials mentioned above have been advanced as the answer for those who fail to glean the necessary information from the handbook supplied. It is unfortunate that these alternatives do not consider the needs of the learner. They fall into that age old trap of believing that if you keep on saying the same thing in different ways the meaning will eventually become apparent. Even if a "learner" does walk away from the magazine, book, computer or video with the necessary knowledge of the software system this is absolutely no guarantee that the user will have developed the skills to apply such knowledge to create their own spreadsheets, databases or pages of polished text. For such programs to be effective they must provide information as they do, but they must also provide the learner with the opportunity to gain hands-on experience with the software through an interactive mode of instruction.

Computer-based interactive video can be dismissed as just another instructional device that will attract its share of enthusiasts and skeptics. I believe it is more than this. It represents a significant testing of attitudes within general training institutions to microelectronic instructional methods and the servicing of trainee needs. For political, financial and professional reasons I cannot see public education meeting the challenge. Teachers will not relinquish the floor. As Microelectronic equipment decreases in cost and human resources continue to get dearer the private sector will undertake its own specialised training.

If technicians stop highlighting the difficulties in any video or audio production and lecturers stop automatically reaching for their note folders and sections within institutions start to talk to each other we just might be able to get CBIVT moving. If that happens who knows what might follow.

References:

M. Keating (1984) Advanced technology and Australian training policy. In National Training Council (1984) Microelectronics Training Needs Report. Canberra: A.G.P.S.

J. Barry Ritchie (1984) Education and training for the microelectronics revolution. In National Training Council (1984) Microelectronics Training Needs Report. Canberra: A.G.P.S.

INTERACTIVE VIDEO: A QUESTION OF SOPHISTICATION

Dr Brian Baldie

During the past two years I have noticed that the level of sophistication of the questions asked about interactive video has increased quite markedly. Despite the complexity of the questions they still basically fall into two distinct categories. The first of these are concerned with questions of why trainers and marketers should move to the use of interactive video and how they can justify the added expenditure. The other area of concern is that of the type of system most suited to the needs of particular applications and/or situations.

The questions answered here are based upon enquiries at the Australian Institute of Training and Development Conference and Exhibition (Sydney, 1984), reader responses to my article in Training (1984) and personal interviews and phone conversations with trainers and sales managers from corporations and institutions at a national and international level. The ordering of these questions does not indicate frequency of occurrence or relative importance. Comment regarding such issues will be made where appropriate.

In an attempt to gauge the rate and depth of development, information about your own plans and activity along with any questions not introduced within this paper would be welcomed by the writer. Through such sharing and coordination Australia can learn from America, the United Kingdom and Holland and overcome many of the difficulties of hardware compatibility and coordination of software development.

WHY INTERACTIVE VIDEO?

Although this actual question was not asked the contributing questions treated in this section were all raising the basic issue of why should I change what I am doing at the moment. Trainers and marketers are to be praised for valuing their current practices and the last thing anyone wishes to see is an unquestioning abandonment of these for an allegedly superior delivery system.

What is computer-based interactive video?

It is a means by which information is presented in video, print and graphic forms through the "coupling" (interface) of a video cassette recorder or video disc player and microprocessor designed specifically for this purpose or a general personal computer.

The learning path and the pace of delivery of information can be controlled by the learner within the instructional parameters established by the designer. Progress and branching are based upon the judging of responses made by the learner. The more sophisticated the equipment used then the more complex may be the patterns of branching and video and text delivery. The real power of an interactive video system stems from the fact that it channels video sequences, textual, and graphic material to one display screen and allows the user to become actively involved in the learning process.

Trainers often fail to see the difference between a program that presents normal video segments (linear) and then asks for responses through an accompanying handbook and the interactive system described above. This confusion is quite justified for at times the automatic nature of the delivery system rather than the scanning of handbook pages for text, summaries or questions and searching video tape for specific segments is all that separates them. The one major flaw in the "manual" delivery system of course hinges on human frailty. Learners may not go to the summary segment as directed, they may read ahead before answering questions or decide to skip a video segment because of the difficulty in finding it on the tape. These are not seen as desirable features of a training program unless their use is controlled. On some occasions the designer may wish to allow the learner freedom to consult additional text before answering a question, or by-pass a summary or video segment through the offering of a learner decision menu or on the basis of performance on a pre-test of knowledge.

Isn't it just a trendy fad or another band waggon?

The invention of the automobile saw a person with a red flag walking before it and crowds pointing at the curiosity. In these days of rapid technological advance it would be a naive person who stands pointing at prototypes in a detached manner for these early models may very quickly evolve into sleek machines capable of speeds and feats beyond the imagination of the original designer. What has happened to electricity, radio, television, computer and laser technologies? In general they have all grown and confirmed their place as a crucial part of our society.

I suspect that the question asked, however, is not directed so much at the technology itself but rather to its use in training. If the use of linear video presentations is any indication of trends then we might have a number of reservations about the future of interactive video. The number of video cassette recorders in homes has grown rapidly and home movie video shops have sprung up like mushrooms throughout the country. The home user unthinkingly presses the remote controller searching out commencement points or skipping advertisements on home-pirated tapes. The home user is recorder, editor and viewer of entertainment material. Educational programs are not popular in the home nor for that matter in the workplace. The initial expectations for video training have not been realised in Australia. The main reason for this has been the dearth of quality local productions. Because of the relatively small Australian market and the slowness of trainers to move to video, training publishers have not been encouraged to invest in the production of such material. While the shortage remains trainers will be less likely to adopt video training in anything but a trivial manner.

"Catch 22" can be seen in the present situation and unfortunately may apply to both interactive video generally and video disc specifically. The important issue at point is not whether the delivery system will survive but rather whether the supply and demand situation in the training market place will allow room for its adoption and growth.

Isn't an interactive system just the same as programmed learning but with some video added?

If the trainer views it in this way then the answer is "Yes". It is "No" if the trainer sees an interactive system as both a creative and controlled mode of instruction with the imagination of the designer offering the only limitation. The powerful presentation can creatively and artistically weave delivery and response modes into a rich and interesting tapestry where the learners select the areas to complete as they move toward the completion of the total work. Variations to suit individual tastes and needs are allowed within the general parameters.

It is in the learner's role as active decision maker that the major difference lies. Programmed learning principles are present in most computer-based inter-active video programs. Such programs, however, can go far beyond what we have come to expect of the rather limited programmed instruction books.

Might the same thing happen to computer-based video training as happened to programmed learning?

The rather primitive programmed learning books of the sixties played their part in the development of instructional design principles. As we have seen these have been incorporated into current training procedures and form part of the underlying structure and logic of interactive video training programs.

The capabilities are there, it is the trainers and software producers that have to utilise them or else interactive training programs will be found sharing space with programmed learning books in the bargain bins of shops selling second hand educational materials.

How can I teach a large group using interactive video?

The most commonly applicable reply is, "Why would a trainer want to?" Trainer exposition, slides, linear video, projected print and group discussion are among the best means of delivering instruction to a class group. Interactive video is best suited to individual instruction for it permits unique learning paths to be created by each user.

Computer-based interactive video programs when linked to a large monitor can be used as a framework for lectures or discussion groups. Just as overhead projectuals and slide programs can provide the theme and major points so too can the interactive video program be used as a guide and structure to class presentations. Video segments can be located in a matter of seconds and repeated at the touch of a key. Text can be displayed for notetaking or revision. It is not suggested that programs designed for individual use will necessarily be of use to the trainer in group sessions. The basic content, however, may be easily modified for this purpose.

Can interactive video be used to develop interpersonal skills, like those used in selling?

I have already indicated that C-B.I.V. is best suited to individual instruction. If a trainer wishes to use an interactive video system to develop interpersonal skills then the models, case studies, and problems can be presented through video segments. Groups can then be asked to enter responses to questions dealing with attitudes or procedures. Each group can discuss the problem, make a decision and enter the response. The group can then discuss the feedback or new information supplied through the program. Where teamwork and consensus decision making is important this use of an interactive system may be extremely valuable.

What are the benefits?

The advantages associated with the use of computer-based video training are numerous. The most outstanding are summarised below:

- individualised instruction which allows trainees to follow personally satisfying and appropriate learning paths
- simulations of dangerous, costly or geographically distant work situations
- drill and practice of routine operations to reach a determined level of competence
- accurate and up-to-the-minute record keeping
- accountability at all levels through clearly defined objectives, instant feedback and accurate and detailed performance results
- ability to present training programs in languages other than English
- more effective use of the trainer's time by releasing them from routine training activities, such as, procedural production task training, development of product knowledge and safety procedures
- cost effective training where small numbers of trainers have to receive training or refresher programs in established content which remains fixed for reasonable time periods.

Are there any disadvantages I should know about?

There are many potential disadvantages if a system is not carefully planned and the needs of a company or institution very carefully considered prior to the purchase of equipment and/or the production of software.

Should I purchase the most sophisticated system available?

Most of the problems I have been asked to solve or offer comment upon have come down to two basic facts:

1. Trainers have underspent on equipment and/or software.
2. Trainers want to move beyond the capabilities of their system in the development of training programs.

Educators do well to remember that they are easily impressed by an interactive system while they are still relatively naive as to hardware configurations and capabilities. The only limitation, as already stated, should be the imagination of the program designer. The hardware system selected should service needs, not dictate parameters.

Should I use our mainframe or use a personal computer?

Many large organisations have a mainframe computer system and trainers through pressure from the EDP division feel obliged or compelled to use its capabilities. On the surface this may mean that $4,000-$5,000 can be saved at each workstation. The use of a mainframe for interactive video does raise many questions about access and terminal sharing, terminal communications, software production and authoring, video interface availability of training packages and the whole question of "user friendliness". The cost of a dedicated personal computer for each workstation may be a small price to pay when compared to the less evident costs associated with mainframe adaptation.

Doesn't the cost of video limit the possibilities for most companies?

An interactive video training program is only as good as the content presented so this means that a quite significant budget for software purchase and/or development should be approved before hardware is purchased. Many organisations may have a collection of videos which will form the basis of their new interactive library.

Video production is expensive but then again so is the cost of running a training course for two or three trainees at a time or choosing not to run a course at all because of a lack of qualified staff. The cost of video production must be considered in the light of its contribution to training delivery over its anticipated relevant life.

Should I move into interactive video using a VCR or wait until video disc is more popular?

The main feature separating VCR and video disc delivery is that of search time. The maximum search time on a video disc player is 2 seconds while search times into the tens of seconds are possible even on a C30 tape. This is a technological fact, at this point in time, but it does not mean that the impact of this fact cannot be minimised by careful planning.

Careful editing of a video tape can reduce the search times for locating branched segments. The learner needs time to reflect and consolidate information and these short breaks may well offer an opportunity for such activity. The trainer may even incorporate a question or topic for the trainee to consider prior to viewing the next video segment.

In answering this question I feel a practical consideration is that of experience in the production of interactive video. Prior to undertaking a disc production I believe any trainer/producer would do well to develop courses on the more forgiving and less expensive tape-based system.

What is the cost of an interactive video hardware system?

Depending upon the sophistication required systems fall in the range from $4,000 to $9,000 ex tax. Many organisatons may already own equipment which can be incorporated into the system. Such equipment should be totally dedicated to the interactive system as it is inefficient and potentially damaging to constantly assemble and dismantle the delivery station. In this regard a work-station should be easily accessible and where possible not needing to be shared or moved.

Can't I achieve the same results by showing our in-house video production or hiring a training tape?

A well prepared video program of a linear form may engage the viewer in active reception but unless it is tied to workbook activities or a formal or informal test the trainer has no idea of the message with which the trainee is leaving the session. In the case of interactive video the learner is constantly involved in making decisions and entering responses. The trainee cannot fall into a purely receptive, and often passive, mode of involvement.

As an added bonus the trainer can examine the pattern of responses entered by an individual or an entire group. Instructional planning for the future can be gleaned from such data.

The users are allowed to pick their way through the video and text material available. Through menus trainees can select that information which is of direct relevance to them. This enables the participant to save time by moving past known or irrelevant material without losing the thread of the total program. In short the interactive system provides an efficient means of accessing information while it closely monitors the learning path of the individual. As the majority of traditional video packages are linear in nature they do not readily provide such capabilities.

What is the most important part of the interactive system?

The instructional design is most important for without this foundation the most sophisticated equipment and the most expensive video production will not guarantee the achievement of training goals.

The necessary ingredients for effective computer-based video training are planning and integration. The interactive video program is the crossroad of electronic and human resources.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TERTIARY QUALIFICATIONS FOR HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTITIONERS

Dr Adrian D. Geering

1 INTRODUCTION

This paper will consider the topic: the development of qualifications for human resource practitioners in Australia. First, detailed comments are presented relating to the conceptual framework for the development of qualifications for human resource practitioners, including the nature of Human Resource Development (HRD), the roles of the Human Resource Developer and how the role has been classified by various researchers. The second part of the paper contains a discussion of research which has been undertaken as a basis for developing qualifications for Human Resource Developers. The next section presents further recent research related to validating the roles of human resource practitioners in Australia and the educational implications of the results. Finally, some concluding comments are presented.

2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 The nature of Human Resource Development

There have been many problems associated with the use of the terms "Training" and "Development" in Australia. Gurr stated that "the training and development field in Australia lacks conceptual role and status definition which are prerequisites to the attainment of full professional standing for human resource development practitioners" (Gurr, 1981b, p.2).

In 1982 Professor Len Nadler, whilst speaking at a conference in Adelaide, also suggested that the use of the term "training" was related to lower level activities in organizations, from a business and economic point of view. He further claimed that the term had perjorative overtones and was used mainly to describe training at supervisor level and below whilst other terms were used to describe training activities for occupiers of higher status positions within organisations, e.g. management education, executive development (Nadler, 1982a).

This search for a clear identity for human resource development practitioners in terms of role definition, concept clarification and professional practice guidelines has resulted in Nadler, Jones and others presenting various models to delineate this field of human endeavour and to precisely define its constituent parts.

As some commentators have claimed, a most important preliminary consideration for any human resource practitioners is to have a clear understanding of the field of HRD and a frame of reference against which to evaluate where you are going and what you are doing (Nadler, 1981 and Lippit, 1982).

How human resource practitionerss define HRD will determine to a large extent: what they do; how they do it; what problems they identify; what actions they recommend, how they evaluate what they have done; and how they determine what success they will have achieved. Similarly, it is essential for staff of any tertiary institution contemplating developing qualifications for HRD practitioners also to have a conceptual framework in this field. Since theory of HRD is fundamental to this discussion, in this section of the paper, several models are presented for your consideration (a model is simply a short-hand way of representing something which is real or imagined.)

2.1.1 Nadler's Approach

Nadler claimed that there is still no agreement on the terms used in grappling with the whole concept of human resources and their utilization in organisations (Nadler, 1980, p.2). However, he presented a way of identifying various human resource activities in three major areas and classified them under the generic term "Human Resource Management" as the following figure indicates:

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Development (HRD)	Utilization (HRU)	Environment (HRE)
Training	Recruitment	Job enrichment
Education	Selection	Job enlargement
Development	Placement	Organization development
	Appraisal	
	Compensation	
	Workforce planning	

Nadler defined Human Resource Development (HRD) as being those learning experiences which are organized, conducted within a specified time and designed to produce behavioural change, (ibid).

Human Resource Utilization (HRU) embraces the traditional functions of the Personnel Department which are still needed for the effective functioning of organizations. Human Resource Environment (HRE) is the newest of the three areas of specialization. Before 1970, it would have been difficult to identify any significant numbers of people involved in areas related to this specialization. Some organizations used external consultants in these activities but seldom had a unit established to carry out HRE activities solely. Increased concern over quality of organizational life has emphasized the importance of organizations to have a group of people who are concerned about HRE. As stated earlier HRD consists of three different kinds of learning experiences - broader than training alone, yet including training - training, education and development. An understanding of these activities and specific definitions will help human resource practitioners use these concepts accurately. In the literature, one is confronted with a plethora of terms which are used synonymously with HRD but with little precision e.g. on-the-job training, renewal, staff development continuing education, professional growth, professional development and in-service education. Consequently the focus, the purpose and the context of these activities are quite often confused.

Nadler views training as focusing on a person's present job and believes that the learning experiences provided by training should improve actual job performance. It is also expected that learners will use the training immediately on the job. Thus training is of low level risk as the organization may gain a direct return or benefit because trainees can use the learning experience directly in their work.

Nadler views education as an activity to prepare employees to perform a specific job or group of jobs in the organization in the future. It is still job-related but in order to differentiate it from training, the emphasis of education is on the individual preparing for a different job. The time utilization is near future as the common practice is to prepare people for a new job over a fairly short period of time. The risk to the organization is medium level as despite all good planning, it is possible that education may not necessarily produce a return to the employing organization.

Development, according to Nadler, is focused on helping an organization grow and change by providing learning experiences for employees. Thus development is futuristic in orientation and hence a higher risk level activity.

It is probably a matter of value judgements about how many resources should be put into training, education or development. Perhaps they are overlapping processes.

2.1.2 Jones' Approach

In a recent article Jones stated that to many, Human Resource Development was synonymous with training (Jones, 1981, p.188). However he believed that:

> "there is a need for clarity in professional terminology because we have to communicate with our clients and potential clients in order to establish proper expectations for our work if we are to develop appropriate contracts. The lack of clarity about what constitutes HRD has resulted in what we believe to be an underemployment of group facilitators within organizational systems. It is our view that trainers,

consultants, and group facilitators need to be aware of and relate effectively to the various activities that we believe constitute HRD in order to develop a more well-rounded perspective on the part that training and development play in the array of programs that focus on the organization". (ibid, p.188)

Jones claimed that: HRD focuses on people and on increasing the talents and abilities of people in a system; HRD is systematic and individually designed to focus on the pool of people who constitute the human organizations; the term resource implies that individuals or groups of people within the organization are considered to be resources rather than problems; the term development is ambiguous in the literature and implies an emphasis on the discovery and nurturing of human resources; all HRD activities focus toward learning, behaviour change, increased effectiveness and harnessing untapped human abilities for goal attainment; and HRD activities when they are co-ordinated with each other offer the promise of making the relationship between the individual and the organization more effective by focussing on the development of people and of peoples' systems.

Jones defined HRD as "an approach to the systematic expansion of peoples' work-relation abilities, focussed on the attainment of both organizational and personal goals". (ibid, p.188)

Jones also believed that HRD incorporates five major areas of activity that can be utilized to improve human systems and to develop people within those systems: training; organization; development; education; system change and human-systems programs.

2.1.3 1979 Conference on the Academic Preparation of Practitioners in Human Resource Development (American Society for Training and Development)

Olson and Berne believed that there were three major areas of activity in organizing human resources curricula - HRD, Human Resource Management and Organizational Development. (Olsen and Berne, 1980, p.80). They stated that:

> "Although there was a recognition that a case might be made for treating any one of these or other disciplines as an umbrella for others, and certainly there are interrelationships, there was some agreement that there is a need for would-be or practicing professionals in these three areas to have access to a full curriculum focused on the core tasks of each." (ibid, p.80)

This tripartite model is similar to Nadler's approach except that different terms are used to describe its component parts.

2.1.4 Models for Excellence - the 1983 ASTD Training and Development Study

McLagan and Bedrick reported that this study produced nine products for use by people in the training and development field including a definition of training and development, identification of fifteen roles and a list of outputs and competencies for each role (McLagan and Bedrick, 1983, p.2). They defined training and development as, "identifying, assessing - and through planned learning - helping develop the key competencies which enable individuals to perform current or future jobs" (ibid, p.3)

The value of this competency study lies in the fact that it represents a major step toward the professionalization of the field of training and development. Several shortcomings relate to the regressive use of the term training and development and the use of the competency model in the research design.

From the above, a number of implications emerge for human resource practitioners.

It is clear that: HRD is a much broader field of endeavour than training; in future human resource practitioners will need a much wider range of competencies in various areas identified by a number of writers; organisations will demand a wider range of skills from human resource practitioners in future as organisations have to change to meet the needs of their external environment; human resource practitioners in the future will need to be skilled to work across a wide range of activities including training and development, personnel management and organizational change; that current career prospects of trainers will be enhanced as they embrace and welcome these widened definitions of their role; and that HRD as a field of study, is in the pre-paradigmatic field of development. There is obviously a great need in the field to extend the concept of HRD and relate it to the various systems within modern organizations, the external environment and values inherent in the definition of man, society and the nature of work.

In the next part of the paper specific comments are made in relation to the role of human resource practitioners or Human Resource Developers using a term which is forward-looking and representing emerging concepts in the profession.

2.2 The Role of the Human Resource Developer

In a recent paper, Malcolm Knowles stated:

> "I perceive a major change taking place in the definition of the role of training - the purpose and mission of training, and therefore the role of the trainer. For one thing, I see

> us on the verge of getting rid of the label 'training' and 'trainer'. I think we're coming to realise that nobody likes to be trained unless you're a dog and even then the wagging of the tail may be subterfuge!
>
> "Maybe dogs don't like to be trained either! But I think that people don't like to be trained. We're increasingly coming to use the words "Human Resource Development" as the overarching label for what we're doing." (Knowles, 1983, p.4)

Obviously, a basic change is occurring in the nature of HRD and this will have an impact on the role of the Human Resource Developer.

Various approaches in the literature have been used to classify the role of the Human Resource Developer. From the literature it is clear that the term HRD relates to a wide range of activities, approaches and roles, practitioners come from a variety of backgrounds, and Human Resource Developers may occupy a changing role as organizations respond to environmental changes, (Gurr, 1981a, pp.8-10).

Nadler classified the roles and activities of the Human Resource Developer into three parts - learning specialist, administrator and consultant, (Nadler, 1982b, p.8). Schreier presents an extensive trainer role model consisting of eight roles - administrator, consultant, evaluator, participant, facilitator, president, observer, and presence, (Schreier, 1978, p.1). Research in recent years has created a "taxonomy" of behaviour and styles and models which tend to be descriptive, static, catalogues of what HRD practitioners do rather than what roles and activities are relevant in varying organizational circumstances. Nadler's model does attempt to look at the various factors relating to HRD within organisations and thus is more useful in that respect.

Despite the differences which occur between the different models, there is enough commonality between HRD practitioners' roles and activities to allow the identification of some core elements and practitioner attributes that should ideally accompany them. In this paper, three aspects are highlighted for your consideration.

Firstly, HRD practitioners must be specialists in human relation skills and attitudes because human resource development focuses on people.

Thus, certain kinds of people should be precluded immediately from this role. HRD practitioners should: have a warm friendly outgoing disposition without being overbearing; model an empathetic attitude to other people whose values, aspirations and viewpoints may be different; be able to act as a mediator/counsellor between individuals and groups; act as a helper in a problem solving role; be skilled at the art of compromise, negotiation, consensus-seeking, conducting meetings and interpreting policy; have a solid value system and know where they are going; be adaptive, flexible and aware of their own strengths and weaknesses in dealing with people; have excellent skills in active listening, interpreting, interpersonal and group communication skills; be able above all to create a climate of trust, openness and mutual acceptance in which people want to take responsibility for their own development; have a firm understanding of human and organizational behaviour; and know how motivation and psychology of work relate to job performance.

Secondly, HRD practitioners must be skilled in the area of adult education and adult learning principles.

Learning is the key to many activities - HRD, management, and supervision. An HRD practitioner must be skilled in and appreciate: the field of adult learning; using andragogical concepts in determining learning needs; designing learning experiences; implementing learning experiences; and evaluating learning experiences.

Thirdly, HRD practitioners must be able to act as consultants to line supervisors and managers. Obviously the most single accessible and direct resource for human growth and development in any organization are the line supervisors and managers. This has implications for the role of HRD practitioners. One of the major focuses will be to provide managers with educational programs in adult learning principles and skills in performing the role of facilitator of adult learning, (Knowles, op.cit., p.4).

De Courcy Meade echoes this approach when he claimed that HRD has entered a new "organic phase where it will be asked to meet and deal with the effects on people of the accelerating pace of continuous change spearheaded by technology and technocrats, but having deep, social, political and economic ramifications", (De Courcy Meade, 1982, p.4).

In terms of people, the very nature and meaning of work has changed. As De Courcy Meade stated:

> "yet the population is still being asked to work in industrial, commercial, public sector and public service organizations still hierarchically organized and with still largely 'Theory X' assumptions about human behaviour dominating the behaviour of many managements. The reservoir of untapped abilities and motivations is already spilling over into unproductive, often counterproductive activities leading to increasingly inflationary pay demands, worsening industrial and human relationships, aggressive behaviour at all levels, stress, illness, and possibility of social breakdown". (ibid, p.4).

In this turbulent environment of change, HRD has a very important role in achieving and maintaining equilibrium and avoiding the danger of disintegration and collapse through providing continuous learning:

As De Courcy Meade claimed:

> "In these conditions, all previous perceptions of training, training methods and the role of trainers have to be radically changed....Above all, the Training Function has to become a central rather than a peripheral activity of management. It becomes, in due course, an indispensable rather than an expendable function. It can no longer possibly be carried out, outside the main management activity by relatively low level people called Instructors or even Training Officers. That is not to say that no role will exist for Instructors or Training Officers in a new organic approach to Training. But they will be supporting the mainstream effort not trying to substitute for it". (ibid, p.5).

Obviously the training of HRD practitioners to work as consultants with managers to focus upon organisations, organisational analysis and development, adult learning concepts, training needs, and learning design, will be of prime importance.

In the next section of this paper the competencies of human resource practitioners are considered.

2.3 Classifying the Competencies of Human Resource Developers

Many similar approaches have been used to classify the competencies of HRD practitioners, Kenny (Kenny 1979, p.11), White (White, 1979, p.3), ASTD. (McLagan and Bedrick, 1983, p.2) and others have classified the role of Human Resource Developers into a number of competency areas and these are summarized in Table 1. Kenny identified eleven competency areas and related individual competencies in each area to four different kinds of human resource practitioners - instructor, designer, manager and consultant. White listed 105 competencies, in eight competency areas. ASTD has identified nine categories of professional activity for human resource practitioners, (Olsen and Berne, 1980, p.80). McLagan and Bedrick identified 102 outputs and 31 competencies in 15 competency areas. It is clear that there are many similarities in the approaches used by different writers to classify the competencies of Human Resource Developers.

In the next section several pieces of research, used as a basis for developing qualifications for Human Resource Developers, are discussed.

3 QUALIFICATIONS FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPERS

Various commentators (Arnold, 1983; Walker, 1981, 1982) have highlighted the need for HRD practitioners to become more professional. Walker listed four criteria to achieve professional status in Australian society including: the mastery of a disciplined and specialized body of knowledge and skills; the completion of a prescribed pre-service preparation program at a tertiary level; the acceptance of legal sanctions controlling the behaviour of practitioners; and the acceptance of a system of self-policing by practitioners (Walker, 1981, p.10).

In this context, Colleges of Advanced Education play a very valuable

TABLE 1: COMPETENCY AREAS OF HRD PRACTITIONER'S ROLE

KENNY	WHITE	ASTD (1979) OLSEN AND BERNE	ASTD (1983) MCLAGAN AND BEDRICK
1 Administration	1 Analyzing Needs and Evaluating Results	1 Analyzing Needs and Evaluating Results	1 Evaluator
2 Communication	2 Designing and Developing Training Programs and Materials	2 Designing and Developing Training Programs and Materials	2 Group Facilitator
3 Course Design	3 Delivery Training and Development Programs/ Services	3 Delivery Training and Development Programs/ Services	3 Individual Development Counsellor
4 Evaluation	4 Advising and Counselling	4 Advising and Counselling	4 Instructional Writer
5 Group Dynamics Process	5 Managing Training Activities	5 Managing Training Activities	5 Instructor
6 Learning Theory	6 Maintaining Organization Relationship	6 Maintaining Organization Relationship	6 Manager of Training and Development
7 Manpower Planning	7 Doing Research to Advance the Training Field	7 Doing Research	7 Marketer
8 Person/Organization Interface	8 Developing Professional Skills and Expertise	8 Developing Professional Skills and Expertise	8 Media Specialist
9 Teaching Practice	9 Developing Basic Skills and Knowledge	9 Developing Basic Skills and Knowledge	9 Needs Analyst
			10 Program Administrator
			11 Program Designer
			12 Strategist
			13 Task Analyst
			14 Theoretician
			15 Transfer Agent

role to enable HRD practitioners to upgrade their professional status. In fact many organizations and trainers are committed to a welfare approach to HRD through the provision of weekly study release schemes to enable organizational members to gain additional qualifications to obtain extra pay or to improve professional status and thus career mobility. There are a number of institutions offering some units in HRD in other kinds of awards, but only several offer specific courses for HRD practitioners e.g. South Australian College of Advanced Education (SACAE), Riverina College of Advanced Education, Sydney College of Advanced Education, and Victoria College of Advanced Education. In comparison to the United States of America, the development of tertiary level courses for HRD practitioners is in its infancy. As one writer (Smith, 1979, p.19) stated, after surveying HRD tertiary courses in Australia:

> "It would seem then that the training profession in Australia is not well served by appropriate tertiary courses compared to, for example, the USA".

In the remainder of this part of the paper two research projects, used as a basis for designing tertiary courses for HRD practitioners, are considered.

Gurr (Gurr, 1981, p.8) identified 19 competency areas and a large number of competencies, after completing a literature review, and following personal consultation with overseas experts including Professor Malcolm Knowles at Nova University, Professor Len Nadler at George Washington University and John Kenny at the Department of Education in Ontario, Canada. These areas and competencies formed the basis of a needs analysis questionnaire which was validated by an advisory committee of highly regarded HRD practitioners in South Australia. The results from the one hundred and seventy-two respondents in the survey were used to develop the Associate Diploma in Training and Development Course at the Underdale Campus of the South Australian College of Advanced Education in 1980 (Hobart, 1980).

The competency areas which were identified are listed below:

- Competency Analysis
- Teaching Methods
- Instructional Technology
- Training Needs Analysis
- Course Design
- Evaluating Training
- Communication
- Group Dynamics
- Counselling and Interviewing
- Special Learning Contract
- HRD Project
- Learning Theory
- Organizational Behaviour
- Psychology of Work
- Sociology of Working Environment
- HRD Concepts
- Recurrent Education - The Teacher
- Recurrent Education - The Student

- Recurrent Education - The institution

Gurr's research has shown that the roles, activities and competencies of HRD practitioners in Australia follow almost identical development paths with those of similar practitioners in North America. The main value of the research has been to provide a specific tertiary award for HRD practitioners - the Associate Diploma in Training and Development. After five years, over five hundred students from all states of Australia and several Asian countries, have enrolled in the course. The first person to graduate from the course was presented with his award in April 1983 and sixteen other students have graduated since the award started. Obviously, this professional qualification, offered on the basis of part-time, internal or external study, mature age entry, self-paced learning and competency-based educational approach, has received strong support from HRD practitioners. Students are drawn from a wide range of organizations including the armed forces, public service organizations, private enterprise organization, consulting firms, service organizations, police and correctional service organizations and health organizations.

A further piece of research, related to the development of qualifications for HRD practitioners was conducted by the South Australian College of Advanced Education to determine what level of support there was in the community for the development of a degree course in human resource management (Malone, 1984).

The major purposes of the survey were to: gauge the level of community approval in relation to curriculum areas of the course; determine whether the course contained an appropriate set of skills; ascertain whether graduates would meet employers' requirements; identify whether the course provided enhanced career prospects; and to decide whether the course was an appropriate award for HRD practitioners.

A questionnaire was designed and sent out to approximately 1,500 respondents from the following groups: all heads of government departments in territorial, state and federal administrations; five hundred chief executive officers of private sector companies in South Australia, Victoria and New South Wales; all members of AITD in South Australia and three hundred members of the AITD in Victoria; and all members of the Institute for Personnel management in South Australia.

The return rate of the questionnaire was 38% - a fairly satisfactory level for this type of investigation. Survey results indicated an outstanding level of acceptance by the respondents of the proposed awards, its aims and content areas. A significant part of the survey dealt with community need for the course. There was a strong support for the course ranging from 92% to 96% of the groups surveyed. Interestingly, few respondents saw the course as being suitable for school leavers. Instead, most respondents saw existing HRD practitioners as being the appropriate students for the course.

Respondents were asked also to endorse, for the proposed degree program, each of eighteen course areas as either "essential", "elective", or "exclude". The eighteen course areas, and each one's percentage endorsement as "essential" by the Training and Development Group (N=119), are as follows:

- Human Resource Training (82.5%)
- Management of a Training and Development Department (58.7%)
- Human Resources Development and Productivity (67.5%)
- Performance Appraisal (72.5%)
- Management Development (66.2%)
- Counselling and Communication (77.5%)
- Job Analysis (76.3%)
- Data Management Systems (38.7%)
- Recuitment (26.6%)
- Conditions of Service (26.6%)
- Career Development (65%)
- Labour Relations (47.5%)
- Health and Safety (40%)
- Corporate Development (85%)
- Corporate Planning (75%)
- Employment Planning (78.7%)
- Management of Change (65%)
- Consultancy (37.5%)

(Malone, 1983, p.11)

Additionally most respondents thought that the course would enhance the career prospects of students and also they endorsed the practical orientation planned for the course. The degree course, based on this research, is planned for introduction in Term 2 1985. In the next section further research studies related to validating the roles of human resource practitioners in Australia are presented.

4 FURTHER RESEARCH STUDIES

One of the major problems related to the research discussed in the previous sections, is methodological. The identification of competency areas and specific competencies do not necessarily provide a satisfactory basis for determining what a HRD practitioner actually does in a particular organization - situation specific competencies may be lost by this approach. Moreover, in some large organizations, job specialization may limit the extent to which a HRD practitioner can be involved in a range of HRD tasks and prevent any accurate understanding of the role of the Human Resource Developer. Another problem is related to the method of determining the list of competencies before presenting them to a wider audience for verification. The consensus method used by a committee of "experts" may provide a useful starting point but it is limited because it does not contain empirically derived data related to job analysis of the role of HRD practitioners.

A major problem also is related to the competency approach per se. Catalogues of competencies are helpful but they do not contain the conditions under which competencies are carried out, the standards of performance used, and the extent to which all competencies are used.

One different approach that has been helpful in defining the role of HRD practitioners was used by Pinto and Walker (1978, p.61). They developed a set of questions about the work of trainers and factor analyzed the responses to these questions. Fourteen factors were identified in the work of training and development personnel. Thus this study provided a valid and comprehensive job specification that was derived empirically for the training and development field in Australia.

Burns (1982, p.11) used many of these factors as the basis for a task inventory which was used in two surveys to study the job profiles of training and development personnel in Australia (Hayton, 1984). Also, Burns reinforced the observations made above when he claimed that the competency approach used by Kenny (1976) did not provide an adequate basis for the task inventory because the competencies appeared to be created in an ad hoc way using no empirical basis, other than the consensus view of a committee (Burns, 1982, p.11). This major shortcoming also applies to the research reviewed earlier in this paper.

However, the approach used by Pinto and Walker, Burns and Hayton also has a major short coming - it is focussed on perceptions of what the HRD practitioner currently does and may not be forward looking nor necessarily related to the impact of future change. So, this approach encapsulates a static view of HRD and does not allow external forces to be considered that will be at work "in shaping the art" of HRD. Legislation, the economy, values, social problems, mass media, policy within an organization, the culture of an organization, and organizational structure all have an impact of Human Resource Development, and what a person undertaking that role actually does.

There is a need to recognize that the role of the HRD practitioner is far greater than that encompassed by any piece of research. Still, the findings of any research such as that conducted by Hayton, Malone and Gurr are helpful starting points for defining the areas of knowledge skills and understanding what are important for people involved in the emerging HRD professions. The role of institutions, such as Colleges of Advanced Education, in facilitating the development of HRD is of great importance (Geering, 1984).

The educational implications of Hayton's research are important for institutions that are developing qualifications for HRD practitioners. A table summarizing the recommended curriculum emphasis for staff development officers and staff development managers is included below (see Table 2) (Hayton, 1984, p.66). Hayton found that there was a large difference of emphasis in only four of the fourteen duties. These four duties were:

. Duty E - Evaluate and train trainees
. Duty G - Counsel staff
. Duty I - Instruct staff
. Duty J - Influence various groups

In the first two, a much higher emphasis was recommended for staff development managers. In the last two a much higher emphasis was recommended for staff development officers.

TABLE 2: RECOMMENDED EMPHASIS TO BE GIVEN TO EACH DUTY, BASED ON TASK DATA

DUTY		DIFFICULTY (Note 1)	CURRICULUM EMPHASIS (Note 2)	
		(both groups)	SD OFFICERS	SD MANAGERS
A:	Analyse training needs	-	MODERATE	MODERATE
B:	Determine training approach	0	MODERATE	MODERATE
C:	Design training programs	+	HIGH	MODERATE
D:	Prepare instructional materials	+	MODERATE	LOW
E:	Evaluate and train trainers	+	MODERATE	VERY HIGH
F:	Supervise external programs	0	MODERATE	HIGH
G:	Counsel staff	-	LOW	HIGH
H:	Advise managers	0	MODERATE	HIGH
I:	Instruct staff	0	VERY HIGH	MODERATE
J:	Influence various groups	+	VERY HIGH	MODERATE
K:	Research training	0	LOW	MODERATE
L:	Liaise with managers	+	VERY HIGH	VERY HIGH
M:	Manage training	-	HIGH	VERY HIGH
N:	Inform on changes in training	-	HIGH	VERY HIGH

Note 1: These symbols refer to the mean Difficulty rating for the duty:

- = significantly below average (p .05)
0 = average
+ = significantly above average (p .05)

Note 2: The recommended curriculum emphases are based on the Time-spent and Consequences of each task in the duty. The derivation of these values is explained in Table 6.1 of Chapter 6.

(Hayton, 1984, p.66)

This research is most helpful and will be especially relevant for tertiary institutions involved in this field as staff evaluate their courses and make changes, especially at times of reaccreditation.

5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, the conceptual base of HRD has been discussed. Various research studies were reviewed that have been used as a basis to develop tertiary level qualifications for HRD practitioners in Australia. The educational implications of additional research that has helped validate the role of the HRD practitioner were presented.

A number of concerns need to be addressed that have arisen during this paper including:

- the need for developing a more comprehensive research methodology to overcome the weaknesses of the approaches discussed;
- the need for the development of an integrated body of theory to direct and correct HRD practice and to form the conceptual bases for tertiary courses;
- a consideration of the nexus between the theory and practice of HRD;
- the extent to which a tertiary course in HRD can accommodate the conflicting demands of training, education and development;
- the need for more research to determine the extent to which the role of a HRD practitioner should be extended to incorporate organizational change, human resource management, management skills and other responsibilities previously not considered as part of their role.

All of these concerns are important and worthy of further investigation.

REFERENCES

Arnold, L. "Professionalising Training and Development" in Training and Development in Australia, Vol.10, No.3, September 1983, p.12

Burns, D. Job profiles of trainers: An occupational analysis, Unpublished report prepared for the National Training Council 1982a

De Courcy Meade, J.P. "The Changing Scene of Industrial Training", Training and Development in Australia, Vol.9, No.1, March 1982, pp.4-9

Geering, A.D. "The Role of Institutions in the Development of Human Resource Development" in Training and Development in Australia, Vol.11, No.4, December 1984, pp.7-11

Gurr, J. "A Study of Training and Development Practitioner Roles" in Training and Development in Australia, September 1981a, pp.8-10

Gurr, J. A Study of Training and Development Practitioner Roles in Australia. Unpublished paper, Adelaide College of the Arts and Education, p.2, 1981b

Hayton, G. The Job profiles of Training and Development Personnel in Australia, Adelaide, TAFE National Centre for Research and Development, Working Paper 4, 1984

Hobart, R.B. "Development of an Associate Diploma in Training and Development" in Training and Development in Australia, Vol.7, No.1, March 1980, pp.19-22

Jones, J.E. "Human Resource Development: What it is and how to become involved" in J.E. Jones and J.W. Pfeiffer The 1981 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, University Associates 1981, pp.188-191

Kenny, J.B. "The Core Competencies of a Trainer" in Training and Development in Australia, March 1979, Vol.6, No. 1, p.11.

Knowles, M. "Developing the Training Professional" in Training and Development in Australia, Vol.10, No.1, 1983, pp.1-52

Lippit, G.L. "Developing HRD and OD: The Profession and the Professional" in Training and Development Journal, January 1982, pp.20-21

McLagan, P.A. "Models for Excellence: The results of the ASTD Training and Development Competency Study" in Training and Development Journal, June 1983, pp.1-8

Malone, P. Community views on the training of human resource practitioners: some research results. Paper presented at Personnel Focus 1983, the First Asian Indian Pacific Conference of Personnel Management, Perth, 1983

Malone, P. "Community views in the training of human resource practitioners: Some research results" in Human Resource Management in Australia, Vol.22, No.1, February 1984, pp.50-56

Nadler, L. "HRD - Helping Managers Solve Problems", Training and Development Journal, January 1981, p.46

Nadler, L. "Using Corporate Human Resource Development as a Management Tool", Seminar, Adelaide, 30 June 1982a

Nadler, L. Corporate Human Resource Development, Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., 1980, p.2

Nadler, L. "A Model for Professional Development", in Training and Development in Australia, Vol.9, No.1, March 1982b, pp.8-13

Olsen, E. & Berne, E.J. "Academic Preparation of HRD Practitioners", in Training and Development Journal, May 1980, pp.79-84

Pinto, P.R. & Walker, J.W. "What do training and development professionals really do?" in Training and Development Journal, July 1978, pp.58-64

Schreier, J. "A trainer role model: concepts and application" in Studies in Training and Development Research Paper No.1, ASTD 1978, pp.1-17

Smith, B. "What's happening about tertiary level training and development courses in Australia" in Training and Development in Australia, Vol.6, No.1, March 1979, p.19

Spitzer, D.R. "Trends in training and development in the United States" in Training and Development in Australia, Vol.7, No.2, 1980, p.19

Walker, W.G. "The Ralph Report implications for AITD in Training and Development in Australia, Vol.9, No.4, December 1982, p.10

Walker, W.G. "St Augustine was Right" in Training and Development in Australia, Vol.8, No.3, September 1981, p.4

White, T. "Increasing your effectiveness as a training and development professional" in Training and Development Journal, May 1979, pp.3-12

PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT IN THE AUSTRALIAN PUBLIC SERVICE

Jane Briggs and David Patton

Overview

The essential feature of how personnel development is organised in the Australian Public Service (APS) is that it is a shared responsibility between the Secretary of a department and the Public Service Board, the central personnel management authority. The Public Service Board plays a central role in meeting service-wide personnel development needs to all or most departments. These mainly cover needs for particular categories of staff (eg. graduate recruits, feeder group to the Senior Executive Service etc) or for special occupational groups or functions (eg. personnel operations, financial improvement, equal employment opportunity etc) In recent years particular emphasis has been given to upgrading the skills of managers across the service with the introduction of special programs such as the Executive Development Scheme, Personnel management Scheme and Interchange Program. In addition to conducting formal training and staff development programs the Board also assists departments through consultancy activities, training materials production, an information service and a resource lending library.

Regional Offices of the Board, located in each state capital, offer a range of formal personnel development programs to meet specific regional needs in the areas of management and supervision training, and trainer training in addition to performing a co-ordination role.

As the Secretary of a department determines the level of activity and resources devoted to personnel development this can vary considerably between departments. Most large departments with operational responsibilities have well organised personnel development units which conduct a wide range of procedural, technical and managerial training. On the other hand small policy oriented departments may undertake limited formal personnel development activities and rely more on supervisors in giving on the job training to their staff.

Another feature of personnel development within the APS is that significant emphasis is placed upon the individual to seek out and pursue personnel development activities. Even for service-wide programs run by the Board it is firstly up to the individual to self nominate to be considered for the program. However an increasing trend is for management to take a more positive, interventionist role to ensure that those who need personnel development receive it.

Personnel Development Co-ordination Activities

A small Personnel Development Co-ordination Unit in the Board's Central Office was established in 1984 to develop ways and means of assisting personnel development units in the Service. Particular emphasis is given to the co-ordination of resources (people, information, materials, ideas) in the Service; and encouraging the exchange and sharing of resources with the aim of improving the PD function in the APS. Emphasis is also being given to developing policies and practices for the development of the competencies of staff in the PD function to ensure that personnel development activities achieve a more efficient, responsive, equitable and innovative service.

At the end of 1983 an interdepartmental Working Group on Personnel Development was established to advise the Board on the development needs of PD staff in the Service and ways of meeting those needs. The Group has distributed to all Commonwealth departments and statutory authorities two discussion papers outlining the competency profiles and priority needs of staff in the function, and strategies for meeting those needs. After consultation, the Working Group is now preparing its final report which will include major recommendations.

As one of a number of initiatives to upgrade the personnel development function in the APS, conferences for Central Office Personnel Development managers were introduced in 1983 by the Board and are held twice a year. These conferences provide a forum for the discussion of issues such as major reforms and developments likely to impact on personnel development throughout the Service. To complement the conferences for Central office Personnel Development Managers, the Board also holds annual conferences for its regional personnel development staff. These provide a forum for sharing ideas and resources for assisting the regional offices of departments in meeting their personnel development requirement.

A second initiative aimed at providing development opportunities for managers of the personnel development function was the introduction in 1984 of a program of workshops. These workshops have been designed to raise managers' awareness of a range of issues, skills and development options to enable them to more effectively perform their function against a background of resource constraints and increased demands on their services. The workshops are open to PD managers in Canberra and in the regions.

The Unit is giving particular attention in 1985 to the information exchange and resource sharing aspects of improving personnel development in the APS. The 1985 edition of the Personnel Development Directory which lists staff in the PD function throughout the Service, will include for the first time a section on the training and development expertise and skills of PD practitioners. The purpose of this additional information is to encourage greater co-operation and facilitate the consultancy role of Personnel Development Staff throughout the Service. Another resource being developed is a list of the many consultants used in training and development throughout the Service. The list will include the consultants' area of expertise and where they have worked in the APS as a reference point.

In addition, the Unit plans to commence a program of reciprocal visits between departments and the Board as a way of becoming more familiar with the operations, major features and staff of PD areas throughout the Service, as well as encouraging greater co-operation in the total effort towards a more responsive innovative and efficient personnel development function.

The Changing Role of Human Resource Developers

Over the past few years the nature and role of staff development and training personnel within the APS has changed. The competency study, mentioned previously, undertaken by the Working Group on Personnel Development indicated that the traditional training officer is now required to undertake a much wider range of activities than just the conduct of formal APS classroom training courses. The emphasis on management development has meant an increasing use of outside specialist consultants for formal training as well as the use of mobility and other non-classroom techniques. There has also been an increased specialisation among personnel development personnel themselves. In addition to 'instructors' who conduct classroom training, and 'managers' of the departmental unit, a new group of 'co-ordinator/developer' category has been identified. This group performs a number of administrative and co-ordination tasks associated with assisting individuals with their development options. This includes such activities as career planning, selection for development programs, managing mobility and job rotation schemes, studies assistance schemes, program design and development, staff appraisal etc.

Finally, and probably the most significant trend of recent years, has been the shift from trainer to organisational consultant. Increasingly, personnel development staff are being required to act as consultants and advisors to line managers and work units within their organisations, particularly with the introduction of new APS reforms such as industrial democracy and equal employment opportunity. This has been a central theme of the conferences and workshops conducted by the Personnel Development Co-ordination Unit, mentioned previously and is expected to continue. The capacity of the personnel development function, and the staff employed in it, to meet the challenges in implementing these new reforms will be the measure of success in the coming years.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT: The Search for an Appropriate Paradigm

Leonie Jennings

The status and future of Australian adult education as a unique educational entity will depend largely on the quality of its provision. This, in turn, will be determined by the capacities, competencies and professional development of practitioners involved in it.

Many adult educators enter the field with limited educational preparation. Many have a competent knowledge or experience in a specified area, but lack formal education in teaching and administering adult programmes. Questions are often raised about the "appropriate" format for the preparation of teachers of adults. Specifically, should adult educators receive pre-service education like others involved in teaching? Educators tend to accept the premise that teaching adults is sufficiently different from teaching youth to merit the "special" provision for adult educator preparation. This premise is based upon the theoretical model of "andragogy" (developed by Knowles, 1980); a model that distinguishes adult learning from pre-adult learning.

Despite the wide acceptance of the andragogy model it does not offer conclusive evidence that the teaching of adults requires a specialized pre-service curricula for teacher preparation (Kowalski 1984; Courtenay and Stevenson, 1983; Knudson, 1980; and Lebel, 1978.) Some critics of Knowles suggest that the andragogy/pedagogy division would be more appropriately addressed by using the terms teacher-directed and self-directed, rather than focusing upon the teaching of children versus the teaching of adults (Rachal, 1983).

In the past, the attainment of academic credentials has not been a significant issue among adult educators in Australia. The trend may now have been reversed. Currently there is a drive toward professionalism, as evidenced by the number of tertiary institutions scrambling for recognition as providers of adult educator preparation courses. The reason for this swing is uncertain. It has been argued that by seeking some honorific expertise, it will be easier to persuade others that there is some special value in one's work, as well as justifying a claim to scarce resources. This is the theme of Illich's (1977) Disabling Professions, where he and others argue that in asserting secret knowledge, which they alone control, educators develop a special incommunicable authority to determine what people need. They then claim the power to prescribe services to meet those needs so they not only recommend what is good, but actually what is right (Illich 1977: 17). Illich suggests that it is their power or authority to define people as clients, as well as to determine their needs which is the very essence of a profession, and the way they come to dominate and legitimate their practice, is the process of "disabling".

Despite the drive toward preparation for the task, a feature of adult education is the high turnover of adult instructors. Many are voluntary workers whilst others receive token financial reward. Adult educators are a heterogeneous group as distinct from most other educational practitioners who share common entry requirements, teacher training and institutional socialisation. Given this diversity of adult educator backgrounds, it is appropriate to consider which model of preparation or form of inservice would be most desirable.

It is possible to think about the issue of competing approaches to staff development in terms of alternative paradigms. Zeichner (1983) identifies four opposing paradigms which have permeated pre-service and in-service programmes for teachers at all levels of education in the United States and Canada: the behaviouristic, the needs-based, the craft-apprenticeship and the critical perspective.

The "behaviouristic" paradigm is founded on a positivistic epistemology and behavioural psychology. Teaching is composed of a definable repertoire of knowledge, skills and attitudes. It emphasises the development of these specific and observable skills in teaching which are assumed to be related to learning. In this context the teacher is regarded as a passive recipient of professional knowledge. B.O. Smith (1980: 23-24) can be identified with this approach especially in respect of schooling:

> The pre-service student should not be exposed to theories and practices derived from ideologies and philosophies about the way schools should be. The rule should be to teach thoroughly, the knowledge and skills that equip beginning teachers to work successfully in today's classrooms.

Another paradigm is founded on a phenomenological position where programmes are based on the self-perceived needs and concerns of teachers. Emphasis is directed toward psychological maturity, the reorganization of perceptions and beliefs about the mastery of skills and content knowledge. According to this approach, teacher learning is a form of adult learning and development; a process of "becoming" rather than a process of training.

In the third paradigm, teaching is viewed as a craft involving teachers in a process of apprenticeship. Here, improvement in practice is developed through learning from the wisdom of others. This paradigm is usually based on field experience. Critics of this approach (Iannaconne 1963; Zeichner 1983) argue that these experiences contribute to the development of "utilitarian teaching perspectives" (Zeichner and Teitelbaum, 1982: 96), where student teachers tend to accept the practices that they observe as the only reality. The situations tend to become models for practice rather than objects of scrutiny and analysis.

The last paradigm gives prominence to the development of critical inquiry within teachers, where technical skills are not valued as an end in themselves but as a means of bringing about desired ends. This view assumes that the more teachers are aware of the origins and consequences of their actions, and of the realities that constrain these actions, the greater the likelihood that these actions and constraints can be changed.

The typology developed by Zeichner (1983) is important for those involved in the development of "training programs" because the acceptance of one paradigm beomes a guiding factor in determining the approach to the question of how adult educators "ought" to be prepared for their professional roles. Crittendon (1973) points out the need to take a stand, either explicitly or implicitly, on the degree to which the existing institutional form and social context of education should be taken as given. Berlak and Berlak (1981: 253) identify the political nature of any teacher development programme:

> It is political in that it either encourages or does not encourage persons to develop and use their critical capacities to examine

> the prevailing political, social, and cultural arrangements and the part their own acts play in sustaining or changing these arrangements.

The first three paradigms are individualistic and all accept as given, the educational and social contexts within which teachers work. They do not recognize political and ideological commitments within education. Political and ideological questions are thus considered to be extraneous to the educational process. Beyer and Zeichner (1984: 19) suggest that these types of approaches:

> ... help students take on currently dominant roles, expectations and characteristics. Teacher preparation within this perspective is aimed at equipping students with the skills, dispositions, and competencies necessary for the perpetuation of schools (read adult learning centres) in their present form.... teaching is seen as problematic only within a technical and ameliorative perspective.

A growing body of literature (Giroux 1980; Greene 1978; Popkewitz 1979) argues that the dominant form of teacher preparation or "training" rejects normative questions about education and view teaching as apolitical and non-ideological. Such programmes are designed to preserve the status quo, to promote servility, and to suppress the possibility of social change. These notions are consistent with the negative view of teachers in our society. Though this view is not publicly stated, teachers are often considered to be inadequate for their tasks either by reason of ineffective training or by self-selection. Elbaz (1983) argues that such an influence on teachers' self-concept is so demeaning as a social assessment, that it is likely to ensure teachers' acceptance of a passive instrumental role.

Freire (1972) describes this form of apolitical training as the "banking approach", where prospective teachers can be described as empty vessels to be filled. The teacher is not seen in terms of an agent, but as a facilitator, enactor, or conveyor; in short, an instrument. This instrumental approach views the teacher and his/her work in isolation from the substance of what he/she teaches, resulting in a failure to give meaning and direction to the work. It prevents them from becoming the subject of their own transformation. The approach "mythologises" reality, concealing the importance of the actor in constructing the social reality. It offers an unquestioning transference of culture from one generation to another.

Both the "behaviouristic" and "traditional-craft" paradigms view teachers as passive, dependent recipients of that which is to be imparted, while the "personalistic" and "inquiry-centred" paradigms view teaching as reflexive, where teachers are active participants in the educational enterprise. The inquiry-oriented paradigm channels the participants into situations where they can:

> ... develop their capacities to see their classroom behaviour in the perspectives of culture and time, from the point of view of historical and contemporary others, thereby clarifying for themselves and others the alternatives for action.
>
> (Berlak and Berlak, 1981: 252)

From the literature and the writer's experience of the area, the paradigms that have guided the development of practice for adult educators have been based on the technical rationalist model. The literature in Australia does not provide any substantial evidence that adult educators are being actively encouraged to develop reflective modes in relation to their practice. The work of Jason and Schwarts (1976) provides some evidence that this question has been addressed at least overseas. In Australia, manuals for "training adult educators" in a technical rationality model proliferate. The N.S.W. Board of Adult Education Publication (1980) is an example, exemplifying the state of the art. This is not to say that reflective modes are not being currently used, but that the literature is devoid of any attempt to understand and interpret them.

It is inevitable that a position needs to be taken as to which paradigm best fits the notion of how professional teachers can effectively construe their problematic situations. Beyer and Zeichner (1984) emphasize that we do not need better trained technicians, but people who can think and act in ways that are ethically defensible, politically just, and pedagogically sensitive. Adult educators need to improve their ability to see and think about what they do.

The inquiry-oriented paradigm is consistent with the "teacher-as-researcher" view which regards teaching occurrences as "problematic". Here the emphasis is on fostering inquiry about teaching and about the contexts in which it is embedded. By regarding situations as problematic and requiring reflection; a condition develops in which critical consciousness informs future practical judgements.

> The teacher who regards teaching (and curriculum) as tactical and strategic therefore submits some part of his or her work (and, in principle, all of it) to systematic examination. To the extent that it is possible to do, he or she plans thoughtfully, acts deliberately, observes the consequences of action systematically, and reflects critically on the situational constraints and practical potential of the strategic action being considered.
>
> (Carr and Kemmis, 1983: 42)

Zeichner and Teitelbaum (1982: 102-103) argue that there has been a long tradition (not visible in adult education) of promoting reflective inquiry among teachers: "teacher innovators" (Joyce, 1972); "teachers as inquirers" (Bagenstos, 1975); "teachers as problem solvers" (Joyce and Harrotunian, 1964); "teachers as action researchers" (Corey, 1953); "teachers as participant observers" (Salzillo and Van Fleet, 1977); and "self-monitoring teachers" (Elliott 1976). However many of these approaches according to Greene (1978: 54) have not questoned the social contexts in which teaching is located.

If we accept the inquiry-oriented paradigm as a valid way for professionals to examine and develop their practices, then a commitment to this process will have far-reaching implications for the profession of teaching. It will expose the development of teachers' capacities for reflective action (their praxis) and examine the political, cultural and ethical issues which are embedded in their thinking and practice.

> The best way to cope with the complex, problematic, uncertain nature of practice is to appreciate the situation in depth and detail and to select a practice tentatively, based on available theories of action, to try that practice in action and see its results; and then, to revise the practice, if necessary to adjust for flaws observed, and to try again.
>
> (Sanders and McCutcheon, 1984: 10)

This critical strategy does not ignore the existing theory or body of knowledge held by the practitioner, but rather is a mechanism whereby teachers themselves build educational theory through critical reflection on their own practices, a form of self-improvement. Carr and Kemmis (1983: 44) state that critical reflection can only be achieved when both theory (previously organized knowledge) and practice (organized action) can be treated in a unified way, as problematic, and open to dialectical reconstruction through reflection and revision.

This inquiry-oriented paradigm is consistent with the proposition that theory development must be consonant with teachers' perspectives. This is implied by Bolster (1983: 303) when he suggests that in order to inquire into practice we must:

> ... view human behaviour as reflexive. People must be considered as both the creators and the products of the social situations in which they live.... In all our activities we act on the basis of intent, observe the reaction of others to our behaviour, and act purposefully again. The most important elements of any social situation are the shared meanings which participants take from the process of interaction and which ultimately shape their behaviour. Significant knowledge of any social situation, therefore, consists of an awareness of the emerging meanings that participants are developing and the specific ways that these meanings are functioning to shape their endeavours and thus the characteristics of the situation itself.

The purpose of the teacher-controlled research based on this critical reflection model is not to generate universal propositions but rather to provide knowledge about ways of changing practice. The results will be the development of "praxis" or informed action.

Techniques such as action research provide opportunities for adult educators to reflect on the actions that they take in their practices. They allow practitioners to examine any practical knowledge that may constrain their practice, and provide a framework for change. Should we not be considering action research, as a means of developing informed action amongst those who work in the field of adult education?

References

Bagenstos, N. (1975) "The Teacher as Inquirer." Educational Forum, 39: 231-7

Berlak, A. and H. Berlak (1981) Dilemmas of Schooling, New York: Methuen

Beyer, L.E. and Zeichner, K.M. (1984) "Teacher Training and Educational Foundations: A Plea for Discontent." Journal of Teacher Education 35: 18-23

Bolster, A.S. Jr. (1983) "Toward a More Effective Model of Research on Teaching." Harvard Education Review, 53: 294-308.

Carr, W. and S. Kemmis (1983) Becoming Critical: Knowing through Action Research (Rev. ed.). Geelong, Victoria: Deakin University Press

Corey, S. (1953) Action Research to Improve School Practices. New York: Teachers College Press

Courtenay, B. and R. Stevenson (1983) "Avoiding the Threat of Gogymania." Lifelong Learning: The Adult Years. March: 10-11

Crittendon, B. (1973) "Some prior Questions in the reform of Teacher Education." Interchange, 4: 1-11

Elbaz, F. (1983) Teacher Thinking: A Study of Practical Knowledge. London: Croom Helm

Elliott, J. (1976) "Developing Hypotheses about Classrooms from Teachers' Practical Constructs: An Account of the Work of the Ford Teaching Project." Interchange, 7: 2-20

Freire, P. (1972) Pedagogy of the Oppressed. New York: Herder and Herder

Giroux, H. (1980) "Teacher Education and the Ideology of Social Control." Journal of Education, 162:5-27

Greene, M. (1978) "The Matter of Mystification: Teacher Education in Unquiet Times." In Landscapes of Learning, New York: Teachers College Press

Iannaccone, L. (1963) "Student Teaching: A Transitional Stage in the Making of Teacher." Theory into Practice, (April).

Illich, I. et.al. (1977) Disabling Professions. London: Marion Boyars

Jason, M.H. and H.S. Schwarts (1976) "A Guide to Action Research for the Occupational Educator." Division of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education, Springfield, Illinois: Illinois office of Education

Joyce, B. (1972) "The Teacher Innovator: A Program for Preparing Educators." In B. Joyce and M. Weil (eds). Perspectives for Reform in Teacher Education, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Joyce, B. and B. Harrotunian (1964) "Teaching as Problem Solving." Journal of Teacher Education, 15: 420-7

Knowles, M.S. (1980) The Modern Practice of Adult Education. Chicago: Follett

Knudson, R.S. (1980) "An Alternative Approach to the Andragogy/Pedagogy Issue." Lifelong Learning: The Adult Years, 14-15

Kowalski, T.J. (1984) "Research Assumptions in Adult Education: Implications for Teacher Preparation." Journal of teacher Education, 35: 8-10

Lebel, J. (1978) "Beyond Andragogy to Gerogogy." Lifelong Learning: The Adult Years, Sept. 16-18

Popkewitz, T. (1979) "Teacher Education as Socialization: Ideology or Social Mission." A Paper presented at the annual general meeting of AERA, San Francisco, California

Rachal, J. (1983) "The Andragogy-Pedagogy Debate: Another Voice in the Fray." *Lifelong learning: The Adult Years*, 14-15

Salzillo, F. and A. Van Fleet (1977) "Student Teaching and Teacher Education: A Sociological Model for Change." *Journal of Teacher Education*, 28: 27-31

Sanders, D.P. and G. McCucheon (1984) "On the Evolution of Teachers' Theories of Action Through Action Research." Paper presented to the Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans

Smith, B.O. (1980) "On the Content of Teacher Education." In E. Hall et.al. (Eds). *Exploring Issues in Teacher Education: Questions for Future Research*. Austin: Univerity of Texas Research and Development Centre for Teacher Education

Zeichner, K.M. (1983) "Alternative paradigms of Teacher Education." *Journal of Teacher Education*, 34: 3-9

Zeichner, K.M. and K. Teitelbaum (1982) "Personalized and Inquiry-Oriented Teacher Education: An Analysis of Two Approaches to the Development of Curriculum for Field-Based Experiences." *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 8.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT: THE IMPLICATIONS OF THEORIES OF ADULT DEVELOPMENT

Roger Morris

Recently, there have been a number of attempts to base the processes of staff development on various theories of adult development. This paper aims to survey and discuss such attempts. Most of the examples discussed are drawn from the field of In-Service Teacher Education (ISTE). It is this facet of staff development (ISTE) which has the most extensive, albeit largely rhetorical, body of literature. The paper concludes by suggesting a model of the staff development process which incorporates insights provided by the adult development theorists.

ADULT DEVELOPMENT

Adult development is by no means a fully articulated concept but over the past few years an increasing amount of information has been generated about adults; how they develop and how they learn. It is conventional in education circles when discussing theories of adult development to differentiate developmental stage theories from developmental age theories (Chickering, 1974). Further, it is usual to largely neglect biological and maturational models of human development though obviously such theories could have profound implications for instructional design aspects of the staff development process. Finally, most writers in this field are most interested in those theories of development which focus on the interaction of the individual with the environment.

The adult development literature is strewn with loose terminology and mixed images of these two streams of research and theory. It would be helpful, as Lasker and Moore (1979) suggest, if workers in this field began to standardize their language. Much could be accomplished with minor clarifications such as using phase in age-oriented approaches and retaining stage for the more strictly developmental approaches.

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGE THEORIES

For stage theorists, the term stage has some of the same rigid and precise notion that it had for Piaget, namely:

1. Qualitative differences in the individual's modes of thinking responding or problem-solving can be found between the stages;
2. The stages form an invariant sequence or succession in individual development;
3. An underlying, holistic organization of thought and awareness occurs at each stage;
4. The stages are hierarchically integrated; each stage is succeeded and subsumed (rather than replaced) by a more differentiated, integrated, and complex stage.

(Witherell, no date, p.34).

This notion of stage involves changes in quality, competence, and form rather than in quantity, performance, and context as the individual moves from one stage to another. Such structural stages tell us less about what information a person may possess but more about how he/she is using that information.

There are studies, claim enthusiasts for the various stage theories, which point to distinct individual traits that predict success as an adult. The frameworks presented by stage theorists - such as Piaget (1970); Kohlberg (1969; 1972); Loevinger (1976); Erikson (1950; 1963); and Harvey, Hunt and Schroder (1961) - can be used to expand our understanding of individual differences among adult learners and suggest ways in which the processes of staff development can be designed and organized so that human variety is not only recognized but also capitalized upon.

The names proposed for the traits identified in the stage theories of adult development vary from the familiar to the esoteric: ego maturity, psychological maturity, personal competence, allocentrism, accurate empathy, symbolic processing and interpersonal competence. However, they are all highly similar (Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall, 1980). They all underscore the importance of cognitive development structures as significant determinants of life performance. These theorists view adult development as a definite progression from concrete, undifferentiated, simply structured, individual thinking patterns to more abstract, differentiated, complex, autonomous yet interdependent, individual thinking patterns. In terms of relevance to the staff development process, the value of the ideas presented by developmental stage theory can perhaps best be illustrated by referring to the work of Hunt; especially his more recent work with instructional environments. In a most comprehensive set of studies, teachers who were assessed to be at more "advanced" developmental stages (in this case conceptual level) were viewed as more "effective". They functioned in the classroom at a more complex level, they were more adaptive, flexible, tolerant, responsive to individual differences, and empathetic. They employed a wider range of teaching strategies and overall, provided a wider and more varied environment for their students. Further, Hunt's work has also demonstrated that individuals at the more concrete levels of conceptual development function best in more structured instructional environments while those at more abstract levels can function effectively in either high or low structure instructional environments. Finally, while individuals differ in conceptual development and these differences require differentiated instructional environments for optimal learning to occur, Hunt stresses that the developmental level of the individual is not to be seen as a permanent classification but rather as a current preferred mode of functioning (Bents & Howey, 1981).

Santmore (1979) has presented a comprehensive account of how a matching model (Hunt, 1966, 1967; Hunt & Sullivan, 1974) in terms of Conceptual Systems Theory could be used in the instruction of teachers. Conceptual Systems Theory is a conceptualization of adult development which includes dimensions of both interpersonal maturity and information processing. In her treatment, the theoretical characteristics of the sequence of four stages, the Conceptual Levels, and the three Transitional Levels between them are translated into the behaviours of teachers as learners. Features of instructional design are then matched to these developmental characteristics. There is no fully articulated model designed to stimulate developmental growth in teachers. However, Sprinthall and his associates (e.g. Bernier, 1976; Oja, 1980; Sprinthall, 1980; Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall, 1980; Witherell & Erickson, 1978) have provided some guidelines toward the development of such a model. For them teacher development is considered a special case of adult development and effective teaching is seen as a function of higher stages of such development. Their goal is to promote teacher development to higher levels of ego, moral, and conceptual development as defined by Loevinger, Kohlberg, and Harvey et. al. In reports of their teacher development efforts they have identified a number of factors which have proved to be effective in promoting developmental growth. Such factors include: (1) role-taking experiences such as crossrole teaching; careful and continuous guided reflection; (2) the establishment of a nice balance between real experience and discussion/reflection; (3) program continuity; and (4) personal support, but at the same time challenge, for the individual teacher (Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall, 1980).

The initiatives reported above see teacher development as merely one aspect of the teacher's more general development as an adult. Other teacher educators have focussed more specifically on what they see as the unique process of teacher development. Katz has suggested that there are developmental stages in the work life of a teacher (Warner & Lipke, 1981). These stages are: (1) survival, (2) consolidation, (3) renewal and (4) maturity. Wright (1980) goes one step further in relating career profile to vocational commitment and hence to attitude to ISTE. He suggests the following stages in a career profile: (1) survival; (2) control; (3) security; (4) analytical; and (5) dynamic. Wright also suggests 3 failure stages: (1a) non-survival; (2a) complacent rote teaching and (2b) declining competency. Wright infers that the greatest percentage of teachers is in Stage 3, the secure stage where receptivity to change seems to be least. The Rand Study (McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978) suggests that teachers with many years of experience find it difficult to change strategies and materials. It is studies such as these that have encouraged the recent interest in looking more closely at the so-called mid-career teacher and their specific needs and interests.

Fielding (1983) proposes a six stage model of professional teacher development. Each of these stages of development is seen as involving the integration of a new role or an elaborated earlier role. For ease of description the six stages are presented as a sequence.

STAGE	EARLIER ROLE	NEW OR ELABORATED ROLE
1.	Secondary school student	Tertiary student
2.	Tertiary student	Novice teacher
3.	Novice teacher	Novice professional
4.	Novice professional	Client-centred professional
5.	Client-centred professional	Curriculum centred professional
6.	Curriculum centred professional	Educational theorist

The six stages are not regarded as an exhaustive list of all possible professional role integrations. Rather, the stages are intended to indicate broad descriptive categories of development which teachers may experience as they move through their career years . Fielding claims, but does elaborate in his paper, that these descriptive stages, at least tentatively, provide a conceptual basis on which can be developed curriculum designs for teacher education.

Though there has been very little research undertaken in this area, the idea of stages of teacher development is intriguing enough to warrant further study and exploration.

DEVELOPMENTAL AGE THEORIES

Age theorists use the term stage in a very different manner. For them, the term has none of the carefully defined attributes ascribed to it by the stage theorists. Strictly speaking what is discussed by these theorists is not a developmental process, if by development is meant a continuous incremental growth towards higher levels of "maturity". Rather, they propose qualitatively different age-related phases through which people pass from birth to death. Thus for the age theorists stage is a term roughly equivalent to life period, passage or transition.

Age theorists are concerned to find if there are concerns, problems and tasks that are common to all, or most, adults at particular life periods. Further, they are interested in explaining why these tasks loom larger at one time of life rather than another. Finally, they attempt to describe how these tasks, problems and concerns affect adult behaviour. As Levinson (1976, p.21) writes "...we are interested in generating and working with hypotheses concerning relatively universal, genotypic age linked, adult developmental periods within which variations occur".

The claims and the findings of the age theorists are probably even more problematical in terms of direct application to the staff development process but they do provide suggestions as to possibly valuable relationships between the needs and interests of educators and their particular phase of life. The work of Levinson and his associates (1974, 1976, 1978) or Gould (1972, 1978), the popularizing efforts of Sheehy (1974, 1976, 1981), and of Neugarten (1968, 1976) - though strictly speaking she is not an age theorist - provide some valuable insights into the concerns that face adult learners at various ages. Such age-related concerns and behaviours should be given due weight in the planning of developmental activities for educators.

In the mid 1970's, a national committee for in-service education in England and Wales attempted to devise a needs framework based upon the age-related career patterns of teachers. The committee's concept of career profile included the following key stages:

1. the induction year;
2. a consolidation period (4 to 6 years) during which teachers would attend short, specific courses;
3. a re-orientation period (after 6-8 years) could involve full-time release for a one-term course and a change in career direction;
4. a period of further studies to develop specialist expertise;
5. at about mid-career, some teachers would benefit from full-time release for a year to engage in studies to equip them for leadership roles;
6. after mid-career, a minority of teachers would need preparation for top management roles while the majority would need regular opportunities for refreshment

(Bolam, 1980).

As was to be expected the age/career profile idea, because of its highly prescriptive and implicitly deficit oriented nature, met with considerable opposition and has not been widely used in organizing staff development activities for teachers.

Yarger and Mertens (1980) have identified various teacher career stages which can be viewed as professional age variables. They posit six different career stages for teachers (set out below) and speculate on specific types of ISTE activities particularly appropriate at each career stage.

1. Pre-Education Student;
2. Education Student;
3. Beginning Teacher (first year of teaching) - a focus on classroom management, specific pedagogical skills and immediate feedback;
4. Developing Teacher (second year of teaching) - still some focus on beginning concerns but with a widening perspective;
5. Practising Teacher - (3 to 8 years) - a focus on content expertise and preparation for new professional roles;
6. Experienced Teacher - (8 plus years) - a focus on reflection upon experience and on sharing expertise.

Vivian (1983) conceptualizes the ISTE needs of teachers at different ages in terms of five strands or areas of need. The strands relate to aims of ISTE and include three major areas: (1) improving skills; (2) providing for professional development; (3) and encouraging change. There are also two minor strands - (4) counselling, and (5) evaluation - which interrelate with the major strands. Vivian's approach is useful in highlighting the different strengths of the needs of each of these strands at different times. For instance the first strand, improving skills, is likely to be very prominent in the early induction stage of the teacher's career whereas, the second strand, professional development (by which Vivian largely means graduate qualifications) is likely to be more prominent in a later stage of the teacher's career.

As yet little, except speculation, has been produced in the area of professional-age/career stage and its relation to self-perceived needs and interests. However, these career profiles, given their admitted drawbacks and deficiencies, do at least remind the staff developer that there are "professional-age"/"career stage" related individual differences in the needs and interests of educators. Such individual differences are not usually addressed in that mainstay of the staff development process - the one-shot half day "workshop".

LIFE ISSUES

Another approach to the issue of adult development is that taken by Willie (no date). He believes we should consider the concerns, turmoil and crises of adult life. The content of thought at the time of crisis, he claims, falls into six areas: (1) reaction to physiological change; (2) the search for intimacy; (3) inter-action with life's work; (4) the quest for meaning; (5) the development of one's sexuality; and (6) the acceptance of termination. These areas, he feels, are like coils which spiral through life and have a great potential for altering behaviour. Obviously, all of these could affect the actions of educators a they attempt to come to grips with their professional lives. This is especially so at those periods of more intense crises, for example, the so-called Mid-life Crisis, when concern about a number of these themes tend to peak at the one time. Staff development activities which take little notice of the problems and concerns of the educators they serve are failing to acknowledge the very personal nature of such learning.

THEORIES OF ADULT DEVELOPMENT: SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR THE STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The implications of the reported theoretical and research studies now can be summarized.

The writings of the stage theorists and the work that has been done in designing educational activities using developmental principles remind us that staff development can be conceptualized in broader terms than simply content acquisition and technical skills refinement. The educational process itself should also promote the personal growth of the learner.

The age theorists in their writings emphasize the concerns, problems, and tasks which might be common to all or most adults at particular phases of life. Their ideas and the more specialized work that has been done on professional age/career profiles suggest sources of content which may or may not be appropriate during specific life periods. Such content could serve to help educators anticipate difficult periods, prepare for and, thus, ameliorate these.

In addition to the obvious content samples suggested by Willie's conceptualization of life issues, these broad areas of concern speak eloquently, to the staff developer, on the need for a greater understanding of, and sensitivity to, the staff member as a total adult person. The advisory/counselling component of the staff developer's role has been comparatively neglected.

STAFF DEVELOPMENT IN ADULT EDUCATION: A DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE

The adult educator can use the growing body of knowledge concerning adult growth and development in positive non-judgemental ways to enhance the design of developmental activities for his/her staff. Being aware of individual differences regarding needs, interests, learning preferences, styles of interacting with others, and of interpreting experience is a crucial pre-requisite of good instruction. The staff developer must recognize that each staff member's perception of his/her environment reflects, and is filtered through, his/her own developmental status. Furthermore, there exists the important possibility that educational designs which incorporate features suggested by theories of adult development will also promote developmental growth on the part of the learner.

The staff developer of adult educators, who intends to operate in a developmental manner, must not only have a sound knowledge of the principles of adult development and learning and of a full range of staff development strategies (their appropriateness and their providers), he or she also must be a competent practitioner with strong human relations skills. The role of the staff developer is essentially a dual one, that of adviser and educational broker. Working with the adult educator (if requested), the staff developer helps to clarify needs, to determine what the focus of developmental activities might be and then assists by providing information as to how such developmental needs could be met. In other words, the staff developer offers his/her assistance as a resource, without any predetermined agenda, responding to specific requests as they are made. Critics claim that if there is choice as to whether or not to seek assistance, the ones who need it most will be the last to ask. However, experience seems to show that this method has worked with a wide range of educators (Mai, 1977). Anyway, what is the value of forcing assistance on unwilling and unreceptive educators?

But there are many strategies with varying degrees of appropriateness for, and numerous providers of, staff development and adult educators have countless developmental needs. What is needed is a framework which allows the staff developer to assist the adult educator to clarify his/her self-perceived developmental needs and to identify appropriate ways in which they could be met. The matrix, set out below, draws upon a model I have proposed elsewhere (Morris, 1982).

Implicit in all these approaches is a developmental perspective. The following brief comments are offered as a step toward more closely specifiying the developmental insights that each of these general approaches can contribute to the staff development process.

A. PERSONAL APPROACHES

There are a number of staff-development strategies that have as their focus the educator as an individual. It is in these strategies, that the principles enunciated by theories of adult growth, development and learning are most explicit. The educator is seen as a total person who has wider personal and professional needs and interests as well as a narrow need for technical skills.

B. JOB-EMBEDDED APPROACHES

There are a number of staff development strategies that have as their focus the priority interests and concerns of the educator's immediate work context. Such strategies encourage the educator to monitor, to explore, to experiment with, and to reflect upon his/her practice. Educators and students are placed in the role of central actors in the staff development process as opposed to their more usual roles of primary and secondary audiences.

C. ORGANIZATION-FOCUSSED APPROACHES

There are a number of staff development strategies that have as their focus the educator as a member of the organization. The needs of educators as individuals are not always congruent with the needs of the "employing" organization. The fact gives rise to the so-called "professional/employee" dichotomy. This approach sees organizational effectiveness and personal satisfaction as being dependent on changes in both the organization and the individual.

D. GENERAL PROFESSIONAL APPROACHES

There are a number of staff development strategies that have as their focus the general professional development of educators. Depending on circumstances such activities could be: short or long; formal or informal; credit or non-credit. But in all cases the aim is to provide those wider types of educational experiences that more broadly based activities can offer.

THE STAFF DEVELOPMENT MATRIX

GENERAL APPROACHES

	A. PERSONAL			B. JOB-EMBEDDED			C. ORGANIZATION FOCUSSED		D. GENERAL PROFESSIONAL	
	SELF-DIRECTED	DEVELOPMENTAL STRATEGIES	ACTION RESEARCH	COLLEGIAL STRATEGIES	ADVISORIES	DEVELOPMENTAL SUPERVISION	PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT	ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT	SHORT COURSES	FORMAL STUDY
SPECIFIC NEEDS										

There is, of course, a great deal of overlap among these suggested general approaches to staff development and much overlap is also found among the identified strategies. The matrix is not meant to present an all inclusive, highly prescriptive model of what should be the staff development process. It has a much more modest aim: to present some tentative first steps toward an appropriate and useful classification, highlighting adult developmental aspects, of commonly advocated staff development approaches and strategies.

A CONCLUDING COMMENT

This paper has suggested that all sound staff development practices should be informed by the theoretical insights offered by theories of adult development. Staff development for adult educators, if it is to be really useful, must be a personalized process: A process in which the adult educator is assisted to address his or her own personal learning agenda. The role of the staff developer is that of advisor and educational broker. It is time for a wider recognition of the fact that adult educators are adults, too!

REFERENCES

Bents, Richard H. & Howey, Kenneth R. (1981) "Staff Development - Change in the Individual" in Dillon Peterson, B. (Ed) Staff development/Organization Development, Alexandria (Va), ASCD, pp.11-36.

Berliner, D. & Rosenshine, B. (1978) "The Acquisition of Knowledge in the Classroom", in R. Anderson et.al. (Eds), Schooling and the Acquisition of Knowledge, Hillsdale (N.J.), Laurence Erlbaum.

Bernier, Joseph (1976) A Psychological Education Intervention for Teacher Development, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Minnesota.

Bernier, J. & Sprinthall, N.A. (1976) "Moral & Cognitive Development of Teachers", New Catholic World, No.221.

Bolam, Ray (1980) "In-Service Education and Training" in E. Hoyle & J. Megarry (Eds), The Professional Development of Teachers, London, Kogan Page.

Chickering, Arthur K. (1974) "The Education Needs of New Learners: Implications for Liberal Arts Colleges". Paper presented at the East Central Colleges Consortium Conference on the New Learners, December.

Dillon-Peterson, Betty & Hammer, Christy (1980) "Applications of Adult Learning Theory to Staff Development", Journal of Staff Development, Vol.1, No.2, Oct., pp.79-80.

ERIC, "Synthesis of Research on Staff Development", Educational Leadership, November, 1980, pp.182-185.

Erikson, Erik (1963) Childhood and Society (2nd edit) New York: W.W. Norton, 1950.

Erikson, Erik (1964) Insight and Responsibility. New York: W.W. Norton.

Fielding, Tom "Personal Construct Theory as a Basis for a Non-Deterministic Model of Teacher Development", The Australian Journal of Teacher Education, Vol.8, No.2, October, 1983, pp.2-16.

Gould, Roger "The Phases of Adult Life: A Study in Developmental Psychology", The American Journal of Psychiatry, 129 (5), November, 1972, pp.521-531.

Gould, Roger Transformations, Growth and Change in Adult Life, New York, Simon & Schuster, 1978.

Harvey, O.J., Hunt, David, & Schroder, Harold Conceptual Systems and Personality Organization, New York, John Wiley & Sons, 1961.

Hunt, David E. "A Conceptual Systems Change Model and Its Application to Education". In O.J. Harvey (Ed), Experience, Structure and Adaptability, New York, Springer, 1966, 277-302.

Hunt, David E. Teachers' Adaptations to Students: Implicit and Explicit Matching, Research and Development Memorandum No.139, Stanford, Stanford Centre for Research and Development in Teaching, 1975.

Hunt, David E. & Joyce, Bruce "Teacher Trainee Personality and Initial Teaching Style", American Education Research Journal, 4 (3), 1967, pp.253-257.

Hunt, David E. & Sullivan, E.V. Between Psychology and Education, Hinsdale (Ill.), Dryden, 1974.

Hunt, David E. "How to be Your Own Best Theorist:, Theory into Practice, Vol.XIX, No.4, 1980, pp.287-293.

Hunt, David E. "In-Service Training as Persons-in-Relation", Theory into Practice, Vol.XVII, No.3, 1978, pp.239-244.

Kohlberg, Lawrence "Continuitites in Childhood and Adulthood Moral Development Revisited", in P. Baltes & K. Schaie (Eds), Life-Span Developmental Psychology: Personality and Socialization, New York, Academic Press, 1973, pp 179-203.

Kohlberg, Lawrence, & Kramer, Richard "Continuities and Discontinuities in Childhood and Adult Moral Development", Human Development, 12, 1969, pp.93-120.

Kohlberg, Lawrence and Mayer, Rochelle "Development as The Aim of Education", Harvard Educational Review, 42, November, 1972, pp.449-496.

Lasker, H.M. & Moore, J.F. Current Studies of Adult Development: Implications for Education, Cambridge (Mass.), Harverd Graduate School of Education, 1979.

Loevinger, Jane Ego Development, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, 1976.

Levinson, Daniel J., et.al., "The Psychosocial Development of Men in Early Adulthood and the Mid-Life Transition", in Ricks, D.F., Thomas, A., and Roff, M. (Eds.) Life History Research in Psychopathology, Vol 3, Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1974.

Levinson, Daniel, Darrow, Charlotte, Klein, Edward, Levinson, Maria, & McKee, Braxton "Periods in the Adult Development of Men: Ages 18-45", The Counselling Psychologist, 6 (1), 1976, pp.21-25.

Levinson, D.J. The Seasons of a Man's Life, New York, Alfred A. Knoff, 1978.

Mai, R.P. "In-Service in the Classroom: The Advisory Approach", in K. Devaney (Ed), Essays on Teachers' Centres, San Francisco, Teachers' Centres Exchange, 1977, pp.123-130.

McLaughlin, M.W. & Marsh, D. "Staff Development and School Change", Teachers' College Record, Vol.80, No.1, 1978, pp. 69-94.

Morris, Roger "Recent Developments in In-Service Teacher Education An Attempt at Classification", The Forum of Education, Vol.XLI, No.2, Spring 1982, pp.23-30.

Neugarten, B.L. "Personality and Ageing", in J. Birren & K. Schaie (Eds), Handbook of the Psychology of Ageing, New York, Van Nostrand Runhold, 1976.

Oja, Sharon N., & Spinthall, Norman A. "Psychological and Moral Development for Teachers: Can you Teach Old Dogs?" in Sprinthall, N.A., & Mosher, R. (Eds), Development as the Aim of Education, Schenectady, Character Research Press, 1978, pp.117-134.

Oja, Sharon N. "Adult Development is Implicit in Staff Development", Journal of Staff development, Vol 1, No.2, Oct 1980, pp.7-56.

Piaget, Jean Science of Education and The Psychology of The Child, New York, Viking Press/Grossman, 1970.

Santmire, T.E. Developmental Differences in Adult Learners: Implications for Staff Development, Position Paper, 1979.

Sheehy, Gail. "Catch-30 and Other Crisis of Adult Life", New York, February, 1974.

Sheehy, Gail Passages: Predictable Crises of Adult Life, New York, Dutton, 1976.

Sheehy, Gail Pathfinders New York, William Morrow, 1981.

Sprinthall, Norman A. "A Primer on Development" in Sprinthall & Mosher (Eds), Value Development as the Aim of Education, Schenectady, Character Research Press, 1978, pp 1-16.

Sprinthall, Norman A. "Adults as Learners", in G. Hall, S. Hord, G. Brown (Eds) Exploring Issues in Teacher Education: Questions for Future Research, Austin, R. & D. Centre for Teacher Education, University of Texas at Austin, 1980.

Sprinthall, Norman A. & Thies-Sprinthall, Lois "Adult Development and Leadership Training for Mainstream Education", in D. Corrigan and K. Howey (Eds), Concepts to Guide the Teaching of Teachers of Teachers, Reston (Va.,), Council for Exceptional Children, 1980.

Sprinthall, Norman A. & Thies-Sprinthall, Lois "Education for Teacher Growth: A Cognitive Development Perspective", Theory into Practice, Vol XIX, No.4, 1980, pp 278-286.

Vivian, W. "The Twang Factor", Education News, Vol.18, No.6, September 1983, pp 36-39.

Warner, D. & Lipke, I. "Systematic Approach to In-Service Education", Unicorn, Vol 7, No. 2, May 1981, pp 180-190.

Willie, Reynold "Adult Development and Continuing Professional Education" in K.R. Howey (Ed), Alternative Perspectives on Adult Growth and Development: Implications for Teacher Education, Minneapolis, University of Minnesota/Minneapolis Schools Teacher Corps., No date, pp 1-29.

Willie, Reynold & Howey, Kenneth R. "Reflections on Adult Development: Implications for In-Service Teacher Education" in Houston & Pankratz (Eds), Staff Development and Educational Change, Reston (Va.), ATE, 1980, pp 25-52.

Witherell, Carol "Theories of Adult Development: Implications for the Education of teachers", in K.R. Howey (ED.), Alternative perspectives on Adult Growth and Development: Implications for Teacher Education, Minneapolis, University of Minnesota/Minneapolis Schools Teachers Corps., No date, pp 30-66.

Witherell, Carol & Erickson, V. Lois "Teacher Education as Adult Development", Theory into Practice, Vol.XVII, No.3, 1978, pp 229-237.

Wright, D. "The Superintendent and the Quality of Education. A Taxonomy of Teacher Education", W.A. Primary Principles, Vol 1, No.3, September 1980, pp 32-48.

Yarger, S.J. & Mertens, S.K. "Testing the Waters of School-based Teacher Education", in D. Corrigan & K. Howey (Eds) Concepts to Guide the Teaching of teachers of Teachers, Reston (Va.), Council for Exceptional Children, 1980.

WORKSHOP: DESIGNING AND RUNNING STAFF DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOPS

Lee Andresen

Goals:

This is the outline of a three-hour workshop, the first one and a half hours of which were run at the conference. In the full three hours it would be hoped to lead participants into:

(i) experiencing a workshop whose structure is based upon a simple adult-learning cycle;

(ii) (as part of that experience) examining some of the varieties of workshop activities, starting with the dimension of 'degree of correspondence with participant's job', then extending our ideas to speculate about other possible dimensions.

(iii) examining some of the rights and obligations of leaders in different type of workshop;

(iv) taking a look at our personal needs and learning-goals as workshop designers and leaders.

Participants:

The following characteristics were assumed to be probably true - to some degree or other - about participants in this workshop:

- that they use workshops as a training or instructional tool;
- their concept 'workshop' is of a planned, experienced-based programme in which people learn together in groups;
- they sometimes agonize over choosing appropriate workshop activities to suit their participant's learning needs;
- they sometimes despair because of the unsystematic and uncritical way they approach that task;
- they sometimes wonder why workshops often seem to work better for some people than for others, and on some occasions yet not others;
- they wonder why we don't have an adequate vocabulary with which to describe and discuss workshops.

Pre-workshop briefing:

These concerns listed above were the issues which motivated the presentation of this particular workshop, and were made known to participants prior to it. The workshop was described as emphatically not having all the answers; rather it was designed to be open-ended, speculative, and intended to help participants sort out the issues a little and start thinking about some possible answers.

Theoretical Base:

The programme was based on a few working hypotheses about workshops, viz. that:

- Workshop participants probably possess varying 'workshop learning styles' or preferences, which might vary according to:

  (a) their need for, or comfort with, different degrees of **correspondence** between the world of the workshop activity and the world of their own job; their commitment to the activity may depend upon their perception of the **obvious face-value relevance** of the activity to the job for which they are being 'trained';

(b) their willingness, or abilities, in other areas which are less easy to define, such as:

engaging in inductive reasoning;
tolerating hidden or implicit learning outcomes;
tolerating a diversity of possible learning outcomes;
harbouring suspicions about hidden curricula, trickery, stagecraft;

(c) on account of factors such as these, their willingness to trust the workshop leader, suspending skepticism and tolerating discomfort for the duration of the workshop.

Programme:

This was designed to comprise four stages based upon a simple adult-learning cycle of

(1) goal-setting,
(2) experiencing,
(3) reflecting and
(4) applying and evaluating.

[Derived from Knowles, Kolb, and reflection upon personal workshop practice over seven years.]

After introductory comments and clarification of assumptions about participants, the following steps were to be followed:

1. GOAL-SETTING EXERCISE:

Sharing of concerns likely to be felt by workshop designers and leaders: (individual + pairs exercise).

Reconciling participants' and leader's goals (large group discussion).

2. FIRST GROUP EXERCISE:

Participants are asked to rank five brief descriptions of different workshop experiences along dimension of 'correspondence', a small group exercise, followed by a plenary for collating group opinions, then by discussion. [APPENDIX 8]

3. FIRST REFLECTION STAGE:

Participants are asked to consider what this element of workshop typology might suggest about the varieties of experiences we give participants in our own workshops. One way of doing this would be to each choose a workshop experience we each use (or are familiar with), then grade it on this dimension (individual + sharing). [APPENDIX 2]

Participants are presented the open question 'What other dimensions would need to be incorporated into a complete workshops style typology? (Group discussion).

4. SECOND GROUP EXERCISE:

Participants are shown brief problem descriptions (generally in the form of a complaint or comment made by a workshop participant), and asked to consider how they would react to these critical incidents (Pairs exercise). [APPENDIX 5]

5. SECOND REFLECTION STAGE:

The group is asked to consider ways in which their own approaches to these problems appear to depend upon the type of workshop (using the previously-developed typology) - particularly in regard to the leadership tasks of:

(a) briefing participants before an activity
(b) intervening in an activity and
(c) debriefing afterwards. [APPENDIX 3]

6. EVALUATION STAGE:

Participants receive:

(A) a checklist of some possibly desirable qualities of workshop leaders, to use as a personal competency schedule; they may fill this in either during the workshop or take it away. How they use it is to be confidential. [APPENDIX 1]

(B) evaluation sheets using the following design:

"During this workshop I felt most ... when _______".
Participants write one or two statements now. [APPENDIX 6]

Lee Andresen (Senior Education Officer, Tertiary Education Research Centre, University of N.S.W.)

SELECT REFERENCES LIST (for distribution)

Boud, D. and Pascoe, J. (1978) Postscript: Conceptualising Experiential Education. In D. Boud & J. Pascoe (eds.) Experiential Learning: Developments in Australian Post-Secondary Education. Sydney: A.C.E.E.

Cryer, P. (ed.) (1982) Training Activities for Teachers in Higher Education. Guildford, Surrey: S.R.H.E.

Davis, L.N. (1974) Planning, conducting and Evaluating Workshops. Austin, Texas: Learning Concepts, Inc.

Kolb, D.A. and Fry, R. (1975) Towards an Applied Theory of Experiential Learning. In C.L. Cooper (ed.) Theories of Group Processes. London: John Wiley & Sons.

Radley, G. (1978) The dynamics of groups in gaming. In J. Megarry (ed.) Perspectives on Academic Gaming and Simulation 4: Human Factors in Games and Simulations (Proceedings of 1978 Conference of SAGSET). London: Kogan Page/Sagset.

APPENDIXES: Documents distributed at workshop

APPENDIX 1. A BASIC COMPETENCY CHECKLIST FOR WORKSHOP LEADERS

(After Lewis, R. & Mee, J. Using Role Play - an Introductory Guide. Cambridge: Basic Skills Unit, National Extension College)

I am typically:

1. Well prepared, with everything planned and ready
2. Flexible, able to modify my plans if necessary
3. Able to work with groups rather than tending to confront them
4. Able to trust groups and inspire confidence in them
5. Able to give clear, unambiguous instructions
6. Supportive and honest enough to take criticism
7. Communicative and sensitive to a group's needs
8. Clear in my own mind about what results I am looking for
9. Optimistically able to welcome the unexpected
10. Relaxed and able to enjoy working with groups
11. Versatile, not limited to only one technique or style

APPENDIX 2. A POSSIBLE TYPOLOGY OF WORKSHOP ACTIVITY STYLES

This supposes that if participants vary in their 'workshop learning styles' as the hypotheses suggest, then in order to aptly choose a workshop activity for a particular audience of participants, one should take learning style into account, perhaps in the following way:

DIMENSION OF CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN THE WORLD OF THE ACTIVITY AND THE WORLD OF THE JOB		OTHER DIMENSIONS ?????
Example: "What we are going to do is something very close to what you do in your job"	HIGH	
Example: "This is going to be very diferent from what you do in your job, but it should help you learn something useful for your job"	LOW	

APPENDIX 3. SOME POSSIBLE RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS OF WORKSHOP PLANNERS AND LEADERS

(PARTICIPANT'S LEARNING STAGE AND APPROPRIATE LEADERSHIP POLICIES)

1. LEARNING STAGE: SETTING GOALS FOR SELF

Be as clear as possible in your own mind about the probable learning goals to which the workshop will lead

Circulate clear information about the workshop programme and the sorts of learning goals for which it will be appropriate

Assume participant has contracted to attend because the workshop promises to help achieve some learning goal

Sustain a commitment to pursuing the programme as advertised, except when this becomes clearly impossible

Provide opportunity for clarification or rehearsal of participants' learning goals, and reconciliation (if needed) with workshop goals

2. LEARNING STAGE: SHARING A GROUP EXPERIENCE

Tailor the precise experience as closely as possible to the anticipated needs and learning styles of participants

Try it out, if possible, beforehand in order to test its suitability

Be clear in explaining special roles people must play

Intervene and modify plans if necessary to meet idiosyncratic needs and learning styles

Look for feedback on the effectiveness of the experience, and engage in your own learning cycle

3. LEARNING STAGE: REFLECTING ON, AND EVALUATING THAT EXPERIENCE

Build a reflection stage into the workshop - time for conversing, thinking and 'personal' work

Provide opportunity and encouragement for self-appraisal

Provide materials, resources or models which can act as standards against which to evaluate learning

Provide encouragement to continue evaluating growth during subsequent job

Facilitate self- and peer- appraisal and provide guidelines for this

Give appropriate feedback to participants

APPENDIX 4. WORKSHOP ACTIVITY SUMMARIES

WORKSHOP ACTIVITY SUMMARY 1: **"SAN LEOMA"** [From Huczynski, 1982]

Participants are university or college teachers.

BRIEFING: A scenario comprises a small republic in the throes of revolution; a kidnapped popular leader held captive; a demand by the captors for ransom and release of political prisoners; a CIA plan for rescuing the patriot; the death of a crucial agent - a turn of fate which threatens the whole rescue mission- ; and the need to immediately retrain, to 100% competency, a substitute agent who has to carry and decode crucial messages.

EXPERIENCE: You are the **trainer**, another participant is the agent to be trained; the secret code is fully explained in a secret document you have been given; you have 20 minutes in which to train him/her to a specified performance competency. Do it. A third participant is an observer and will report on your training style and skills. After 20 minutes the trainee will be tested and graded.

DEBRIEFING: Trainees, then trainers, report on their experience; finally observers report, using a prepared observation sheet.

WORKSHOP ACTIVITY SUMMARY 2: **PROMOTION** [Fox, from Cryer, 1982]

Participants are Heads of academic departments at a college or university.

BRIEFING: Participants are given detailed descriptions of three fictional candidates for promotion in their academic department. They are to suppose that they must send recommendations to a Promotions Board as to which applicants should or should not be promoted.

EXPERIENCE: Participants study the descriptions individually, decide on their own recommendation and write this down in the form of a Memo. They then form small groups to discuss their recommendations and try to reach a concensus, finally briefing a spokesperson to report their decision to a later plenary. Plenary receives recommendations and discusses them.

DEBRIEFING: Plenary discussion might centre around the reasons why individuals have assigned particular priorities to the qualities of applicants, influence of extraneous factors, and method of arriving at a consensus.

WORKSHOP ACTIVITY SUMMARY 3: OBJECTIVE TESTING [from Cryer, 1982]

Participants are university or college teachers

BRIEFING: Participants receive a comprehensive handout describing how to design an objective examination and construct multiple-choice test questions. The workshop will be conducted on the basis of this. They will have 30 minutes to study the document privately. When conversant with the document, they will then form subject-based teams which will design a set of m/c questions following the rules laid down in these guidelines. Each individual keeps a notebook, recording the development of each item.

ACTIVITY: Teams meet, construct their questions, finally putting their best set onto OHP's. At a plenary each question and its history of development is presented by its designer then discussed by all.

DEBRIEFING: Problematic points raised earlier have been deferred until now, when they can be addressed. Doubts or worries about the design or use of objective test items are expressed. The leader sums up, stressing the uses and limitations of such tests in teaching and learning.

WORKSHOP ACTIVITY SUMMARY 4: EFFECTIVE OHP's

Participants are college or university teachers.

BRIEFING: Materials, projectors and screens are arranged around the room. The agenda is to learn how to make transparencies (i) presenting text, (ii) presenting data, and (iii) using pictures. There will be three short practical sessions and they will work in pairs. Before each practical session the leader will screen some exemplary transparencies to illustrate each topic, very briefly drawing attention to some of the excellent features of each. In the practical sessions they will all work on a common task, to prepare a set of transparencies on an agreed 'neutral' subject. After designing their drafts, participants will display and mutually appraise their work.

EXPERIENCE: Participants watch the leader's three presentations and, after each, work in pairs to draft their own transparencies then project and appraise them as a group.

DEBRIEFING: A plenary session summarises what people feel they have learned, and deals with concerns about applying these techniques to participants' own circumstances and job needs.

WORKSHOP ACTIVITY SUMMARY 5: COURSE DESIGN

Participants are teachers and Heads of departments in a college or university.

BRIEFING: Participants will imagine they are a committee whose task is to design a particular training course. The course they are to design will be one whose goal is to prepare, with maximum speed and efficiency, a continuous supply of tourist guides for the city in which they live. These guides, once they graduate from the course, will have to be competent to show visitors around the city in which they live, and to handle all the problems such visitors may typically meet.

EXPERIENCE: Participants meet in teams of four. As they deliberate, they keep a log of the progress of their work, including the questions they find it necessary to ask, the information they would need to search out, and the final form (in outline) of the course they design.

DEBRIEFING: Each team presents their course design on overhead transparencies. The plenary discusses and compares the different approaches taken to designing this course, and the emerging common features are summarised. The leader asks pairs to form, whose task is finally to discuss how these principles can be applied to the courses for which they may be responsible in their own jobs.

APPENDIX 5. PROBLEM INCIDENTS SCHEDULES

PROBLEM INCIDENT 1 [From Cryer, 1982]

Participant says

"Isn't there a quicker way of learning this; most of it stands to reason, doesn't it?"

PROBLEM INCIDENT 2 [from Cryer, 1982]

Participant says

"I'm sorry but I just can't get a picture of the person I'm supposed to be playing in this role; will you please give me more details?"

PROBLEM INCIDENT 3 [From Cryer, 1982]

Participant makes an audible comment indicating that s/he is taking a cynical or superior view of the whole proceedings in your workshop.

PROBLEM INCIDENT 5 [from Cryer, 1982]

At the point when you ask the group to start work on the activity you have planned, a participant remarks

"This sounds to me as if it's going to be a complete waste of time";

Nevertheless s/he stays and proceeds with the task.

PROBLEM INCIDENT 6 [from Cryer, 1982]

A participant leaves a group which is working on a problem, comes to you and asks

"You know all about this; what's the answer we're supposed to be getting here?"

PROBLEM INCIDENT 7 [From Cryer, 1982]

The participants' mood and the way things have been going suddenly make you aware that the whole idea of the activity you have planned simply isn't good enough; it lacks bite, energy and carrying power.

PROBLEM INCIDENT 8 [From Cryer, 1982]

During an activity one person (notorious for this) starts to wreck it by over-acting and playing the fool.

PROBLEM INCIDENT 9 [From Cryer, 1982]

As you conduct the briefing or debriefing section of your programme, you become aware that everyone is simply bored; they are yawning, fidgeting or gazing out the windows.

PROBLEM INCIDENT 10 [from Cryer, 1982]

During an activity, as you are approaching one group to check on their progress, a participant - in front of the rest of the group - makes a comment directly critical of the way you are handling the activity.

PROBLEM INCIDENT 11 [from TERC, 1985]

As you enter the workshop venue, you are walking behind a couple of participants who aren't aware of your presence. One says to the other

"You know, I've been coming to these things for years now and they're pretty much all a complete waste of time - I don't know why I bother!"

APPENDIX 6. WORKSHOP EVALUATION

(Multiple copies of this form to be distributed.)

Please use as many of these sheets as you wish, limiting each sheet to one statement only. Thank you for your participation, and your help in evaluating this workshop.

During this workshop
I FELT MOST:

(please circle one)
involved / anxious / afraid / happy / left out / sad / disgusted/ surprised / irritated / successful / bored / curious / other ________________/

when: ____

____

____

____

____

(adapted from Mill, C.R. **Activities for Trainers: 50 Useful Designs.** California: Universsity Associates.)

EMPATHY TRAINING: A RESOURCE FOR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN ADULT EDUCATION

Colleen Mullavey O'Byrne

INTRODUCTION

This workshop session was developed on the following assumptions.

1. Empathy is an essential component in any helping relationship.
2. Adult educators may be described as 'helpers' in the area of human development.
3. The ability to communicate accurate empathic understanding to clients is a critical skill for adult educators to develop.
4. Empathic communication skills can be effectively developed through structured training programmes.

STRUCTURE

The session is divided into 2 parts.

A. Introduction and a brief review of literature concerned with defining empathy, its function, significance in helping relationships, its structure and process.

B. Practising empathy skills and review and discussion of the practice session.

PART A. INTRODUCTION.

In the late 1940's Carl Rogers, in developing his 'Client-centred' approach to counselling, identified counsellor ability to communicate empathy as a key factor in effective counselling outcomes. Sanson-Fisher and Poole (1978), in a study which focused on training medical students to empathise, reported that after training, patients found the students more understanding and caring. This is substantiated by the research evidence from the study, which indicated that, after training, the students made a clear attempt to understand the uniqueness of the individual patient's experiences. Sadker, Sadker and Strain (1977) identified trainer ability to communicate empathy as a critical variable in training teachers in affective skills, a view which is supported in research undertaken by others, such as Carkhuff (1969: 1972) and Egan (1975). Neville (1978) in a study of adult learning groups which sought to explore the impact of learner - learner interactions on learning outcomes, found that high empathy learners positively affected the learning experiences of their fellow students. Isquick (1981) used empathy training with a group of older adults to effect changes in empathic communication, self-exploration and attitudes. Findings from this study showed that older people, through empathy training are able to change part of their interpersonal style and learn new ways of helping.

Empathy, however, is not without its critics. Rappaport and Chinsky (1972) questioned the actual existence of empathy as a single identifiable concept. Gentlin and Rychlak (1970) questoned the need for empathy in situations where behaviour modification techniques have been proven effective in modifying people's behaviour. Clearly the various views expressed about whether empathy is of value in helping relationships, or indeed, whether empathy exists at all, reflect the different philosophical views of researchers and theorists involved in the controversy. However, a sufficient body of evidence is present in the literature which supports a concept of empathy and which recognises empathy as one of a small number of core helper conditions which, when present at a facilitative level, positively affects both process and outcomes in a wide range of helping contexts, such as health care, child and adult education, rehabilitation, counselling, therapy and community work.

Recognition of the important part played by empathy in effective helping has led to further exploration of the nature, purpose and function of empathy as well as the origins and development of empathy in individuals. Further extensive studies have been undertaken to establish effective methods of developing empathic skills in counsellors and other professional and volunteer helpers. The skills which are 'trained for' are derived from studies of the behaviours of counsellors and volunteer helpers who have been identified as 'high' on empathic ability, Carkhuff (1969). Training in empathy has proved effective in bringing about changes in helper behaviour. These changes are evident in increased empathic responses made by helpers - that is both the level of the empathic response is improved as well as the frequency of accurate empathic responses made by the helper. Short term training programmes do not generally claim to change attitudes or traits. However, some modification in attitudes may change over time, once the skills of empathy have been developed.

Emphasis has been placed on the quality of the interpersonal relationship which develops between the helper and the helpee and the impact of that relationship on the outcome of the therapy, training or teaching process which is the identified focus for the helping encounter. Developing an understanding of the needs, attitudes, feelings and life context of the helpee or "where the helpee is at" is assumed by most people in these fields to be an appropriate starting place for helpers to begin their involvement in the helping process. Empathy further requires that the helper understanding of the helpee, should be from the helpee's perspective - that is, the helper must put him/her self in the helpee's shoes and attempt to both feel and understand the helpee's situation as if he/she were the helpee. However, for empathy to be present, the helper must recognise that the stimulus for his/her response lies in the helpee. Finally, to be effective this empathic understanding must be communicated to the helpee.

Therefore empathy may be defined as

> "A response to another's situation which involves awareness of what another may be experiencing, perceiving, thinking or feeling .... The ability to put oneself in another's place and experience what he/she is feeling but at the same time recognising that the experienced response has its source in the other". (Barrett-Leonard, 1972).

For a helper to respond with empathy does not necessitate that the helper has experienced the helpee's current situation; rather only that he/she wants to communicate empathically, is able to imagine what the helpee must be experiencing and to communicate this understanding accurately to the helpee.**

The ability to empathise in this way is viewed by some writers as having far-reaching implications for mankind beyond the area of formal helping relationships (Gavin, 1980; Schuster, 1981). These and other writers suggest that empathy is the core process by which we maintain adult social relationships. Empathy from this perspective is central to the flow of human interaction and acts as a bridge between the internal events of people. The ability to be empathic then becomes critical to the communication process. Empathy is not only a core condition in effective helping, nor is it a mere pleasant addition to human interaction, rather it is an essential ingredient in effective satisfying interpersonal communication and relationships.

VIEWS OF EMPATHY

Hogan (1969) in discussing empathy, makes a number of points which if adopted post a number of relevant considerations for those engaged in empathy training. He suggests that empathy may be viewed both as a trait and as skill.

As a 'trait' empathy is well established by late adolescence and will not be affected by short-term training. Empathy is developed, shaped and modified in and through early childhood experiences with primary caregivers. However, what is affected by successful short-term training programmes are those behaviours (skills) which have been identified in research as associated with the behaviour of a person who is 'high' on trait empathy. From this perspective a person may be 'high' on trait empathy but yet may not, for a number of reasons, be seen to be empathic. A person who behaves empathically may do so because (1) they are 'high' on trait empathy and have the skills to communicate empathic understanding or (2) they have learned to simulate empathic behaviour (skills).

This view has certain implications for those seeking to implement training programmes.

1. people who enter empathy training do so with a particular level of trait empathy - this will not be affected by short-term training.
2. 'high' empathisers will, through training, improve their empathy skills.
3. 'low' empathisers also have the opportunity to improve their empathy skills.
4. it is possible, through structured training, to develop empathy skills to a level which is sufficient to facilitate/assist others when we are placed in a helping role.

Hoffman (1978) in viewing empathy from a bio-social basis describes empathy as a primarily affective response which involves perceptual and cognitive components but which is vicarious and to a large degree, involuntary. He sees empathy as an essentially human attribute. Hoffman focuses on empathic distress arousal and presents this phenomenon as a possible prosocial motivator which has implications for human survival.

In addressing modes of empathic arousal, Hoffman tentatively identifies four different ways in which empathy may be aroused:

1. reflexive crying (observed in infants)
2. motor mimicry (copying behaviour)
3. social conditioning
4. imagining oneself in the others position.

Hoffman suggests a number of factors which may 'block' empathic communication. 'Blocks' may be due to

1. the 'aroused' state of response being too painful for the empathiser.
2. judgement of the person's state may interfere with the process. e.g. the helper may see the helpee as 'getting his just deserts'.
3. helper 'dislike' for the helpee.
4. the situation may hold some other unpleasant association for the empathiser (helpee).
5. the helper may be overwhelmed by his/her response to the helpee's situation/experience/feeling.

Anyone or all of these factors potentially impinge on empathy training and may affect the trainee's responses in the programme.

Carkhuff (1969) identifies two main components in an empathic communication.

1. Discrimination - The skill of accurately ascertaining the feelings, experiences and behaviours described/intimated by clients - understanding.
2. Communication - The ability/skill to communicate this understanding to the client in a way that he/she will understand (may be verbal, physical or involve doing something) - communicating what is undersstood.

In order to communicate understanding a person must be able to discriminate. However, an ability to discriminate does not necessarily mean that a person is able to effectively communicate empathic understanding.

Carkhuff differentiates between primary level accurate empathy and advanced accurate empathy.

PRIMARY LEVEL ACCURATE EMPATHY

The helper/caregiver shows understanding by reflecting back to the person in words or through actions that they understand the feeling and content of what the person is trying to communicate.

ADVANCED ACCURATE EMPATHY

The helper/caregiver shows deeper understanding by responding accurately to the feelings or ideas behind what the person is saying or doing and says to the client that he/she is understood. At this level the client/patient may not be fully aware of the feeling or idea he/she is trying to get across.

In Western society a number of observable behaviours and response have been linked with empathic ability. These form the basis of empathy training programmes.

Behaviours and Responses associated with empathy:

THE HELPER SHOULD FACE THE CLIENT

ADOPT AN OPEN POSTURE

LEAN TOWARD THE CLIENT

ESTABLISH COMFORTABLE EYE CONTACT

TRY TO APPEAR RELAXED

CLARIFY STATEMENTS MADE BY THE CLIENT

ENCOURAGE CONCRETE STATEMENTS OF FEELINGS

BEHAVIOURS

EXPERIENCES

REFLECT BACK TO THE CLIENT THE ESSENCE OF HIS/HER STATEMENTS

SUMMARY OF PART A.

1. DEFINITION

Empathy .... "a response to another's situation which involves awareness of what another may be experiencing, perceiving, thinking or feeling.... The ability to put oneself in another's place and experience what he/she is feeling, but at the same time recognising that the experienced response has its source in the other".
(Barrett-Leonard, 1972).

2. STRUCTURE

Empathy is comprised of an affective response, perception and cognitive behaviours.

Empathy is aroused by reflexive crying, motor mimicry, social conditioning, role play (imagining oneself in the other's place). (Hoffman, 1978)

3. PROCESS

Effective empathic behaviour involves discrimination and communication.

4. BEHAVIOURS ASSOCIATED WITH EMPATHY

Facing the client, adopting an open posture, lean towards the client, establish comfortable eye contact, appear relaxed, clarify statements, encourage concrete statements, reflect back to the client.

PART B

WORKSHOP EXERCISE - COMMUNICATING EMPATHY

STEP 1 : Identify a personal problem you have encountered in communicating with someone.

STEP 2 : Find two other people to work with and decide which one of you will

1. present the problem
2. be the helper to communicate empathic understanding of the problem.
3. observe and report back in your small group what they saw going on in relation to empathic communication.

STEP 3 : Share the problem.

N.B. The helper is to focus on understanding the problem from the helpee's view.

Avoid - giving advice
- offering solutions

Do - check out what you don't understand
- attempt to feedback understanding of -
feelings
experience
behaviour.

STEP 4 : Discuss according to the instruction sheets (in your small group)

STEP 5 : Brief review in large group. This review should be directed towards discussing the process involved in the small group experience and identifying any 'general' issues which the group feel need to be discussed.

Bibliography

Barrett-Leonard, G. (1972) Dimensions of therapist responses as causal factors in therapeutic changes. Psychological Monographs 76 (No.43).

Carkhuff, R. (1969) Critical variables in effective counsellor training, Journal of Counselling Psychology, Vol.16: No.3.

Carkhuff, R. (1969) Helper communication as a function of helper affect and content. Journal of Counselling Psychology. Vol.16: No.2.

Egan, G. (1975) The Skilled Helper. A model for systematic helping and interpersonal relating. Monterey, California, Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Egan, G. (1975) Exercises in Helping Skills. A training manual to accompany the skilled helper. Monterey, California. Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Gavin, W.J. (1982) Vagueness and Empathy - A Jamesian View. Journal of Medicine and Philosophy. 6:45-65. Reidel Publishing Company.

Hoffman, L. (1978) Towards a Theory of Empathic Arousal and Development. The Development of Affect. Lewis and Rosenblu (eds). Genesis of Behaviour Vol.1 Plenun, N.Y.

Hogan, R. (1969) Development of An Empathy Scale. Journal of Consulting Psychology. 33: 306: 316.

Isquick, M. (1981) Training Older People in Empathy: Effects on empathy, attitudes and self exploration. International Journal on Ageing and Human Development. Vol.1 (1) 1-14.

Okun, B.F. (1976) Effective Helping: Interviewing and Counselling Techniques. Massachusetts, Wadsworth Publishing Co.

Rappaport, J. and Chinsky, J.M. (1972) Accurate empathy: Confusion of a construct. Psychological Bulletin Vol.77.

Rogers, C.A. (1959) A theory of therapy, personality and interpersonal relationships as developed in the client-centered framework. Psychology. A Study of Science. Vol.3.
Formulations of the person in the social context. Koch (ed) McGraw Hill, N.Y.

Sanson-Fisher, R.W. & Poole, A.D. (1978) Training medical students to empathise: an experimental study. The Medical Journal of Australia.

Sadler, M., Sadler, D. and Strain, P. (1977). The development of affective skills. New directions for micro-teaching. Journal of Humanistic Psychology, Vol.17, No.4.

Schuster, R. Empathy and Mindfulness. Journal of Humanistic Psychology, Vol.9 No.1.

Spooner, D. and Stone, D.C. (1977) Maintenance of Specific Counselling Skills over Time. Journal of Counselling Psychology, Vol.44, No.1.

Stoffer, D.L. (1970) Investigation of positive behaviour change as a function of genuiness, warmth and empathic understanding. Journal of Eductional Research. Vol.63.

Uhlemann, M.R., Lea, G.W. and Stone, G.L. (1976) Effects of instructions and modelling on trainees low in interpersonal communication skills. Journal of Counselling Psychology. Vol.23, No.6.

Wise, B.L. and Page, M.S. (1980) Empathy levels of Occupational Therapy students. The American Journal of Occupational Therapy, Vol.34, No.10.

TRAINING FOR COMMUNITY-BASED ADULT EDUCATION ADMINISTRATIVE COMMITTEES

Elinor Crossing and Robb Mason

CASE STUDY:

LOSING FACE

Elizabeth was trying hard but didn't seem to be getting far. She was a training officer with the State's Community Education authority and had been trying to convince Carol Rice, a local community committee chairperson, that training activities for her committee would be valuable.

"Sure" said Carol, sitting, back in her chair in the local solicitor's office where she worked. "Training is really a good thing". So is motherhood, mused Elizabeth to herself, it's the delivery that's bloody painful.

"What you have to remember, Elizabeth, is that this is a country town and we do things a little differently here than in the city. You'll get to learn that. I just can't demand that my committee attend training programs". Elizabeth was feeling frustrated enough to be deliberately provocative. It was her job to provide training and so far things had not worked out all that well - at least that's what her Department head intimated.

"Why can't you tell them to attend training programs?" she said. "Just write and tell them that there will be a program on such and such a date and it's expected that they will be there. We'll do all the organising and frontwork and there'll be no cost".

"It isn't that easy" Carol replied. "For a start the committee is volunteer. You know that. You just can't tell them to do something". "Other agencies give their volunteers directions" said Elizabeth, "Why can't FACE?" (Freeburgh Adult & Continuing Education) "Yes, but they've committed themselves to a certain amount of time and the organisation set up that time for them. With the committee members, well, they've just volunteered to work on the committee. That's all the commitment they see, that's all the time they can really afford. I can't get Tom in off his dairy farm to attend another meeting. He's always got work to do".

"But surely they realise the importance of the work they're doing and the need to be properly prepared for it?" countered Elizabeth. "Well maybe they do. What do you think?" was Carol's reply.

"I just can't see that they're properly prepared. Running an adult education centre is not just a giggle these days. It's big money turnover and big staffing responsibilities. Under the Act the community is responsible for this whole operation and I don't believe they've got the management or organisational skills necessary at all. They need training". Elizabeth had probably said more than she had really wanted to say but felt a little better now that she had got it out anyway.

"That's well and good" said Carol. "But ..." said Elizabeth to herself. "Here it comes again". "But...." continued Carol out loud, oblivious, "We're a part-time voluntary committee who just feel strongly about adult education.

That's really all we are. John, our Executive Officer, looks after all those management, organisational matters. He tells us what's happening and we assist as and where we can. The Committee really don't think you need training for that."

Elizabeth was past frustrated, she was now into perplexed. She knew John quite well and was aware that he believed the committee would be giving him more support and direction if only they had the skills and knowledge to be able to do it. It was at his instigation that she was there.

Carol interrupted Elizabeth's ruminations by continuing. "We are not really a high-powered group. We joined so that we could help out and what most of the committee see is that they're there to listen and respond to matters on behalf of the community. We're not high-powered decision-makers. We don't need to be trained for what we do now. Oh, it would be nice but it's hardly necessary. We sit and read the minutes and look at the financial report and contribute where we can".

"Oh God", thought Elizabeth. "That sliding sound I just heard was the rug being pulled out from under this lot. A world full of conniving, public service bureaucrats ready to shut down all community initiative on the basis of inefficiency and lack of controls and here we've got a group that acts like the local benevolent society. How can I get them to recognise the need for training?".

ANDRAGOGY: PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Mark Tennant

In his opening address at this conference Michael Newman, parodying the adult educators' penchant for the neologism, described three groups of adult educators; the modelers, the selfers and the interventionists. The modelers are those adult educators who advocate certain methods and techniques for teaching and program planning and which can be represented in a diagrammatic form with the all too familiar arrows and boxes. The selfers are those who proclaim with fervent missionary zeal, that adult education enhances and propels the individual towards a kind of secular nirvana: self actualisation. The selfers and modelers (which are not necessarily mutually exclusive categories) have in common an emphasis on techniques, methods and administrative practices. They are political, but they present themselves as neutral and they fail to address issues such as power, conflict, and what counts as legitimate knowledge. This can be illustrated by examining some of their cherished notions such as 'meeting needs', providing 'access' and encouraging 'democratic' decision making. Too often these notions are treated as techniques to be developed by competent adult educators: the focus is on how to 'diagnose' needs, or how to remove 'barriers' to access, or how to set up and run a community committee to ensure some semblance of democracy and participation. The interventionists would approach these notions in a different way: they would ask questions about how a community's needs have been socially constituted (eg. why do women primarily opt for courses related to domestic work?); they would argue that access to existing educational provisions should be conceived in more than administrative terms - the question of accessibility must address the social and cultural barriers to access; and they would argue that achieving 'democracy' through community involvement would only be successful to the extent that community groups (family, church, business etc.) are themselves democratic. The interventionist approach is based upon a questioning of existing practices, it is overtly political and its values are explicit and not shrouded in a thin veil of neutrality.

What follows is a critical account of perhaps the most eminent 'modeler' and 'selfer' in the adult education world: MALCOLM KNOWLES.

Many commentators have noted the popular appeal of Knowles' theory of andragogy and have highlighted its shortcomings (Cross, 1981; Hartree, 1984), nevertheless, its popularity remains undiminished. For this reason it is important to maintain a close scrutiny of the theory; the foundations upon which it is based, its practical implications and its impact on the field of adult education. In this paper I wish to make a contribution towards the emerging critical appraisal of Knowles' theory. To achieve this, I discuss and evaluate a number of themes which persist explicitly or implicitly throughout Knowles' writings, and which form the core of his thinking.

The Concept of Self Actualisation

The idea of the 'authentic', 'real', 'fully functioning' or 'self-actualised' person is bound up in the rhetoric of humanistic and existentialist philosphy and psychology. Among the self theorists in psychology Carl Rogers (1951) and Abraham Maslow (1968) are perhaps the most prominent. These two psychologists have had a profound influence on the development of Knowles' theory, an influence which he readily acknowledges. How then do they conceptualise the 'self actualised' person, and how does Knowles use this concept?

It appears that to be 'self actualised' is to be psychologically healthy, to make full use of one's talents, capacities and potentialities. It is a 'need' or 'direction' the person strives towards to achieve psychological growth. In Maslow's (1968) words, once we have achieved a certain level of maturity we "are motivated primarily by trends to self-actualisation (defined as on-going actualisation of potentials, capacities and talents, as fulfilment of a mission [or call, fate, destiny or vocation], as a fuller knowledge of, and acceptance of, the person's own intrinsic nature, as an unceasing trend toward unity, integration or synergy within the person)" (p.25). Self actualisers are said to have a 'superior perception of reality'; 'increased acceptance of self, of others and of nature'; an increase in 'problem-centering'; increased 'autonomy'; a greater 'freshness of appreciation' and 'richness of emotional reaction'; and a host of other qualities. The complete picture of the self actualised person remains elusive, nevertheless it is something, we are told, towards which we are propelled. This tendency is not under deliberate, conscious control; rather it is a constituent part of our physiological endowment; it is something which characterises us as uniquely human.

Knowles' appeal for the adoption of an andragogical approach to adult education is based largely on the above view of psychological growth; "the problem is that the culture does not nurture the development of the abilities required for self-direction, while the need to be increasingly self-directing continues to develop *organically*. The result is a growing gap between the need and ability to be self-directing" (Knowles, 1978, p.56). The practices Knowles advocated are designed to narrow this gap so that the learning processes of adults are congruent with their need for psychological growth.

Several criticisms can be levelled at the concept of self-actualisation which question its status as a description and explanation of behaviour. However, what concerns us here is how Knowles uses the concept to construct a model for helping adults to learn. The main difficulty concerns the extent to which this model should be guided by either the *need* or *ability* of adults to be self directing. Knowles is elusive on this point and it is difficult to know exactly what we are required to assume (as educators of adults) about adult learners. Even though he acknowledges that traditional educational practices ultimately reduce adults' abilities to be self-directed he nevertheless seems to believe that adult educators should assume away the impact of years of traditional educational socialisation and attribute to adults the capacity for self direction. "Andragogy assumes that the point at which an individual achieves a self concept of essential self direction is the point at which he psychologically becomes adult ... It is my own observation that those students who have entered a professional school, or a job have made a big step toward seeing themselves as essentially self directing" (1978, p.56).

The andragogical model (and its corollary, the learning contract) can be interpreted in a number of ways; as an initial guide to assist adult learners towards self direction; as a process of learning appropriate for adults who have already attained the capacity to be self-directed; or as a means through which individual needs can be reconciled with institutional or organisational demands. The first interpretation requires the assumption that adults are, in fact, not self directing and that they need to be weaned away from traditional educational consumption. Those who subscribe to this view caution us against the too abrupt introduction of self directed learning; they argue that this type of learning should be the goal of adult education rather than its starting point. Not surprisingly, the reasons for a stance such as this may be quite disparate; ranging from a paternalistic and manipulative attitude towards adult learners, through to a genuine concern with providing supports for self directed learning efforts. For the moment, it will suffice to note that this interpretation is at odds with the spirit of Knowles' arguments.

The second interpretation assumes that self directed learners have the capacity to control and plan the content and processes through which they learn. Ironically though, while adult educators are admonished by Knowles for structuring the content of a course, they are praised and given guidance for structuring the processes to be followed in a course. But why should self directed learners follow the processes advocated by Knowles? Surely the imposition of a process can be just as restrictive and alienating as the imposition of content? Knowles seems to regard the learning contract process as somehow neutral, he thus fails to acknowledge that it contains assumptions about the nature of knowledge and knowing; and consequently these assumptions remain unexplored by him. At best, he offers a truncated version of self direction: the student directs the content, the educator directs the process.

The third interpretation above, that the learning contract is a means of reconciling individual needs with organisational goals, is another illustration of Knowles' emasculated self directed learner. It is unreasonable to expect individual needs, at all times, to be in harmony with organisational goals, and in instances of conflict, individual needs may well be compromised. This issue raises a still more functional question, is the learning contract a tool for learning or a tool for educators, trainers and managers? In a revealing section of 'The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species', Knowles advocates a pragmatic approach towards the use of learning theories by trainers and adult educators. Following a description of a range of learning theories, he outlines a number of criteria we should apply before selecting one theory over another. These criteria included: " ... how does the proposed theory fit your organisation's management philosophy?" (p.100) and "Another thing to check before choosing a single theory is its congruence with the organisation's long-range developmental goals" (p.101). Thus Knowles' attitude towards the different learning theories is based on the view that they are merely 'products' to be consumed and disposed of at will. This is a questionable view because it takes no account of the explanatory force of the theories concerned.

The Difference Between Child and Adult Learners

Knowles distinguishes between andragogy and pedagogy on the basis of four main assumptions made about the learner. Furthermore, because he views the assumptions of andragogy as being increasingly more appropriate as children mature, his theory of andragogy contains within it a view about human development. What are these assumptions and are they reasonable?

Assumption 1: There is a development of the self concept from dependency to self direction.

Characterising the child as dependent and the adult as independent does not seem problematic. However, it becomes problematic when the question is posed: dependent/independent with respect to what? Children are obviously dependent on adults for many things, but are they dependent learners? Everyday observation confirms that children are remarkably independent in their learning. Moreover, they are quite innovative in the learning processes they employ: fantasy, imagination, simulation, role play, experimentation, games, and so on. One might even suspect that adults need to be re-taught the processes of self direction, having lost them in the years intervening between early childhood and maturity. However, it must be conceded that young children are not 'self directed' in Knowles' use of the term (diagnosing needs, setting objectives etc.). But this is not to say that they are dependent learners, quite the contrary, learning for them is an activity which is natural and spontaneous. It simply does not follow that because children develop from dependence to independence in some respects that they do so in all respects, and it is a mistake to assume that children are dependent learners while adults are independent learners.

Assumption 2: Adults have accumulated experiences and these can be a rich resource for learning.

This assumption leads Knowles to advocate the use of experience as a resource for learning and the employment of experiential learning techniques. However, I would argue that all learning should make use of existing experiences, irrespective of their degree and kind. As such, experience may well be a characteristic that sets children apart from adults, but it is not a characteristic which is relevant in distinguishing between good educational practice for adults and good educational practice for children.

Assumption 3: In children, readiness to learn is a function of biological development and academic pressure. In adults, readiness to learn is a function of the need to perform social roles.

It is difficult to see how this assumption has any implication at all for the process of learning, let alone for how this process should be differentially applied to adults and children. The only implication is that the content of what is learned should be relevant to the learner's needs. Apart from this, the assumption seems questionable; children also have a need to perform social roles and to adjust their behaviour to different social settings; and adults, it can be argued, retain the 'biological' imperative to learn (i.e. curiosity, exploration, creativity for seemingly no immediate purpose) and this is an important aspect of their 'readiness' to learn.

Assumption 4: Children have a (conditioned) subject-centred orientation to learning, whereas adults have a problem-centred orientation to learning.

Knowles does not present this distinction as a 'natural' difference between adults and children, presumably if children were not conditioned to be subject-centred they would 'naturally' be problem-centred. (e.g. infants). If this were the case then organising educational activities around 'problems' would be equally applicable to children and adults. If the advantages of the problem-centred approach are accepted then surely children should be 'deconditioned' towards this approach. Once again the assumption does not lead inevitably to a differential learning process for adults and children. Implicit in this assumption is the claim that adults require immediate application of their learning while children do not. While it may be true that school curricula are geared towards the postponed application of knowledge, this implies nothing about the way in which children are motivated to learn. I suspect that immediate application is as relevant for children as it is for adults. If anything, adults have a greater capacity to tolerate the postponed application of knowledge, partly because they conceptualise time in larger 'chunks' than children, and partly because they have a capacity for hypothetical thinking (i.e. thinking about future possibilities) not evident in young children.

The Clinical Model

I have previously described the influence of Rogers and Maslow on the development of Knowles' ideas, particularly their use of the term 'self actualisation' and its endorsement by Knowles. But there is another, less direct way in which their influence can be recognised, and this is in the adoption of the counsellor/client relationship in the development of learning contracts (and andragogy generally).

Both Rogers and Maslow were clinical psychologists who normally dealt with individual clients, and who were primarily concerned with the psychological health of these clients. It is not surprising then, to find that the educational practices they advocate mirror their clinical or therapeutic techniques. This is well illustrated by Rogers' (1983) conception of the teacher as a facilitator of learning. The qualities of a good facilitator include:

(1) readiness and genuineness:

> "When the facilitator is a real person, being what she is, entering into a relationship with the learner without presenting a front or facade, she is much more likely to be effective ... It means that she is being herself, not denying herself". (pp.121-122).

(2) prizing, acceptance and trust:

> "I think of it as prizing the learner, prizing her feelings, her opinions, her person. It is a caring for the learner, but a non-possessive caring. It is an acceptance of this other individual as a seperate person, having worth in her own right. It is a basic trust a belief that this other person is somehow fundamentally trustworthy" (p.124).

(3) empathic understanding:

> "... the ability to understand the student's reactions from the inside ... a sensitive awareness of the way the process of education and learning seems to the student". (p.129).

This emphasis on the personal relationship between the facilitator and the learner is a feature of Knowles' conception of the andragogical teacher who "... accepts each student as a person of worth and respects his feelings and ideas ... seeks to build relationships of mutual trust (and) exposes his own feelings". (1978, pp.77-79). This is not the complete picture, and Knowles adds to these qualities other 'principles of teaching' which build on this relationship and encourage the learner to diagnose needs, set objectives, enter contractual arrangements and evaluate outcomes. It is interesting that these additional principles of andragogical teaching are similar to the strategies adopted by those psychologists who seek to encourage behaviour modification through self direction. The use of 'well defined objectives', 'contractual agreements', and 'objective records of behavioural changes' are all seen as essential to a successful program of behavioural change. (See Bandura, 1969, and a summary in Knowles, 1978, pp.88-89).

It appears that Knowles' andragogical teacher has been constructed from the techniques and practices of psychologists working in two quite different (and opposing) therapeutic traditions (the humanistic and behavioural traditions). The learning model which emerges leads to an unpalatable view of education as the identification and elimination of deficits or 'gaps' in knowledge, performance, or self concept. For example, one principle of andragogical teaching cited by Knowles is: "The teacher helps the students identify the life problems they experience because of the gaps in their personal equipment". Statements such as these locate the source of 'life problems' as deficits within the individual. They have the effect of shifting responsibility for 'life problems' away from the institution and towards the individual with the 'solutions' being firmly implanted in the teacher/taught relationship.

A second problem with the 'deficit' model of education concerns the diagnosis of 'deficits'. Knowles makes it clear that deficits (and therefore, needs) are diagnosed not only by the learner, but also by interests external to the learner "the teacher involves the students in a mutual process of formulating learning objectives in which the needs of the students, of the institution, of the teacher, of the subject matter and of the society are taken into account". (p.78). But what should the teacher do when there is a conflict of interests? Clearly the conflict will be resolved according to the distribution of power and status among the various interests and the student can be expected to fare very poorly indeed. In this way the idea of 'diagnosing needs' will become yet another mechanism for legitimating existing conceptions of worthwhile education.

One final point concerns the emphasis on maintaining good will with the client (in therapy) or learner (in teaching). This, in general, is desirable, but if 'good will' means that conflict is suppressed or avoided, then it may not always be desirable. One reason for this is that conflict may well stimulate and assist learning and this view can be supported both theoretically (Piaget, 1978) and empirically (Mugny, 1978). Another reason for avoiding the emphasis on goodwill is that it tends to become mandatory for both the adult teacher (as an andragogue) and the adult learner (as an andragogee). The effect of this on group behaviour is that conflict is suppressed much more and for longer than would normally be the case, and the result can be catastrophic. The point being made is that a preoccupation with goodwill (i.e. goodwill = good teacher = good student) can do more harm than good; and that conflict should be seen as a natural and desirable outcome of the interaction of two or more enquiring and challenging minds.

Individualism

Knowles' theory of andragogy contains within it the core ideas of the ethic of individualism. These ideas are explored at some length by Lukes

(1973). Firstly, there "is the ultimate moral principle of the supreme and intrinsic value, or dignity of the individual human being" (p.45). This constitutes a moral axiom which places the individual at the centre of a value system which relegates the 'group' to second place. Secondly, there is "the notion of autonomy, or self-direction, according to which an individual's thought and action is his own, and not determined by agencies or causes outside his control" (p.52). And finally, there is the notion of self-development which is steeped in the romantic tradition and which "specifies an ideal for the lives of individuals - an ideal whose content varies with different ideas of the self on a continuum from pure egoism to strong communitarianism. It is either anti-social, with the individual set apart from and hostile to society, or extra social, when the individual pursues his own path, free of social pressures, or highly social, where the individuals' self-development is achieved through community with others" (p.71).

These three features of individualism; the dignity of the person, autonomy and self direction, and self development (or a version of it); underly the value system implicit in Knowles' theory. Indeed, one of the distinctive claims of adult education generally, is its concern with meeting individual needs through a student-centred curriculum. (Keddie, 1980).

The objections to individualism concern the way it is interpreted and used by adult educators. For example, Keddie (1980) argues that the rhetoric of individualism "obscures the way in which terms like 'individual need' and 'student centred' are socially constituted and located in ways that make adult education more readily available to certain social groups" (p.56). She claims that adult education is similar to the rest of the educational system in that it reproduces middle class values and styles, and this can be seen most clearly from an inspection of the 'core curriculum' evident in adult education provision. It is easy to identify practices in adult education which lend weight to Keddie's argument. An analysis of the various instruments and strategies for determining individual and community needs will reveal that they are often constrained by parameters which exclude the expression of certain categories of need (for example, projective and sentence completion questionnaires) or they ignore or overlook the way in which needs can be socially constituted (e.g. analysis of themes in the media, consultation with professionals).

Knowles' instrument for defining and meeting needs (the learning contract), is also open to the above criticism. Some of the ways in which the 'learning contract' method can be used to reconfirm the status quo have already been outlined: firstly, there is the idea that learning commences with a diagnosis of personal 'deficits' which can be quantified on a numbered scale (with spatial representation of the deficit); secondly, there is the prescription to define 'deficits' in relation to the needs of social institutions; and finally there is the unjustified view that the learning contract process is somehow neutral with respect to what counts as legitimate knowledge. I would like to explore this last point a little further. In what sense does the learning process support a particular view of knowledge? A glance at the mechanics of the learning contract will illustrate how this occurs. The various steps in developing a learning contract are: 'diagnose your learning needs', 'specify your learning objectives', 'specify learning resources and strategies', 'specify evidence of accomplishment', 'specify how the evidence will be validated', 'review your contract with consultants', 'carry out the contract', 'evaluate your learning' (Knowles, 1978, pp.199-203).

Taken together these steps portray a view that knowledge (and skills and attitudes) is measurable, that it lies along a continuum from 'more' to 'less', that it can be specified in terms of objectives (what about subjectives?) and that it should be validated and evaluated externally (through experts). In this scenario the learning process is represented as mechanical, rational and logical, and it is difficult to see how creative, problem-posing learning can emerge from it. Processes such as 'the learning contract' then, can serve to highlight the gap between the rhetoric of individualism and the reality of social control and conformity. It is one of a range of processes which, when examined closely, help to explain the contradictions between the ethos of adult educaton (i.e. that it services the educationally disadvantaged, is student-centred and problem-posing) and the observation that, firstly, it caters for a predominantly middle-class, well educated clientele (Duke, 1984; Rubenson, 1983); and secondly, it provides a 'core curriculum' which is highly subjective-specific and uniform across a range of institutions (Mee and Wiltshire, 1978).

In this context Knowles' theory sits very comfortably with traditional educational practices. But to reject his theory is not to reject the concepts of self direction, self development and 'meeting needs' (or even the learning contract). Rather, it is to insist that these concepts be fully articulated before they are adopted as tenets in a general theory or strategy of adult learning, otherwise "any claim of enlightened understanding may itself be a deeper and subtler form of self-deception" (see Mezirow, 1983, p.127). Moreover, it is important to abandon some of the myths about adult learning which have general currency and which Knowles supports: the myth that our need for self-direction is rooted in our constitutional make-up; the myth that self-development is a process of change towards higher levels of existence; and the myth that adult learning is fundamentally (and necessarily) different from child learning.

References

Bandura, A. (1969) *Principles of Behaviour Modification*. New York, Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Cross, K.P. (1962) *Adults as Learners*. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Duke, C. (1984) *Participation Research*. Paper delivered at the Summer School for Adult Educators, Armidale, Australia, UNE.

Hartree, A. (1984) Malcolm Knowles' Theory of Andragogy: A Critique. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*. 3(3), 203-210.

Jarvis, P. (1984) Andragogy - a sign of the times. *Studies in the Education of Adults*, 16, 32-38.

Keddie, N. (1980) Adult Education: An Ideology of Individualism. In J.L. Thompson (ed) *Adult Education for a Change*. London, Hutchinson & Co., 45-64.

Knowles, M. (1972) *The Modern Practice of Adult Education: Andragogy versus Pedagogy*. New York, Association Press.

Knowles, M. (1975) *Self Directed Learning: A Guide for Learners and Teachers*. New York, Associated Press.

Knowles, M. (1978) *The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species*. Houston, Gulf Publishing.

Lukes, S. (1973) *Individualism*. Oxford, Basil Blackwell.

Maslow, A. (1986) *Towards a Psychology of Being*. New York, Van Nostrand.

Mee, G. & Wiltshire, H. (1978) *Structure and Performance in Adult Education*. London, Longman.

Mezirow, J. (1983) A Critical Theory of Adult Learning and Education. In M. Tight, *Adult learning and Education*. London, Croom Helm, 124-138.

Mugny, G. & Doise, W. (1978) Socio-cognitive Conflict and Structure of Individual and Collective performances. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 8, 181-192.

Newman, M. (1985) *Different Training for Different Adult Educators?* AAAE Conference. Wodonga May.

Piaget, J. (1978) *The Development of Thought: Equilibration of Cognitive Structures* Oxford, Basil Blackwell.

Rogers, C. (1983) *Freedom to Learn*. Columbus, Charles E. Merrill.

Rubenson, K. (1983) *Barriers to Participation in Adult Education*. Manuscript prepared for Skill Development Leave Task Force, Ministry of Labour, Canada.

SESSIONAL TUTORS:

THE FACE OF ADULT EDUCATION?

Robb Mason

The Council of Adult Education (CAE) recently commissioned a study to find out more about the sessional tutors who provide the teaching component of adult education in Victoria. Most of the tutors we are interested in work for organisations that come under the auspices of Technical and Further Education (TAFE) in Victoria. The Victorian version of TAFE is different to the technical and further education structure in other states. There is not one centralised providing authority, rather there are a number of organisations throughout the State, some large, others quite small. Some, the TAFE colleges, operate mainly in the Technical-Vocational sector, while others, the Local Advisory Committees (LACs) and the Community Providers, work mainly in the enrichment area. All the providers are co-ordinated through a regional structure of TAFE Boards relating to a central statewide authority. The Council of Adult Education is somewhat anomalous; on the one hand it is a recognised TAFE Provider, but on the other hand it is not restricted to one region and, because of the statutory responsibilities under its own Act, it operates to promote and develop adult education statewide.

The tutors in this research were drawn from the CAE and the LACs and Community Providers from three TAFE regions, one metropolitan and two country.

The Council of Adult Education is a large, statutory authority with a legislated set of responsibilities of its own. As part of those responsibilities the CAE puts on over 3,000 short courses every year with between 40-50,000 students annually. On a per capita basis it is probably the largest single educational institution in Australia. Local Advisory Committees (LAC's) are country-based centres doing pretty much the same sort of thing as the CAE but smaller and locally controlled. Community Providers are not dissimilar to LAC's in some ways. However, while LAC's are rural, Community Providers are predominantly (but certainly not exclusively) Melbourne-suburban and their programs can differ inasmuch as some take a more community-development approach. It is not easy to separate them from LAC's, however, and for all intents and purposes they can be treated similarly.

The CAE, the LAC's and the Community Providers all have sessional tutors to take their courses and classes. There are no people hired full-time as teachers in these organisations; what full-time staff exist are generally administrative-clerical.

The course range is extremely broad. Most of the organisations offer a smorgasboard of programs which, in general, carry a fee. Adult Education in Victoria is not free. While there is certainly a significant government contribution towards adult education it in no way covers the total cost. Organisations involved in adult education have to work out ways of covering much of their expenditure through revenue. This has a decided effect upon the nature of adult education in that to operate in ways that are innovative and socially responsive, which generally cost money, organisations have to generate revenue at the same time. This is usually accomplished through programming courses.

The success of these courses is usually related to the success of the tutor. The sessional tutor is the real "face" of the organisation. Now "face" is the word I have used to describe tutors in Victoria because they are indeed the front or "face" of adult education as we know it. But the question-mark in the title after the phrase "The Face of Adult Education" implies some doubt. "Face" is really a word administrators use and it's flattering. It says nice things to tutors about their work.

But it's a bad analogy. One usually knows one's face but for many administrators, adult education tutors are probably better designated as the rear-end. Let me elaborate upon this rather crude analogy.

1. Tutors are frequently sat upon and occasionally kicked.
2. They are only infrequently seen by administrators and then rarely directly.
3. They're rarely heard from and generally apologise for it when they are.
4. They are the cause of a considerable amount of paperwork.

But if they ever stopped working the whole show would get bound up and come to a very rapid halt.

The tutor _is_ the key to adult education. Not the administrator, the Co-ordinator or the Centre Manager, the tutor. Very few people get beyond the tutor to make judgements about the organisation on the basis of the quality of its administrative staff. A good tutor generally means a good experience, a successful student and the growth of the organisation's reputation. Conversely, a negative response to a tutor can mean a negative appraisal of the organisation. What is worse it can mean a possible setback for a person in pursuing their life goals through adult education. For those who gather the courage to risk their self-concept through pursuing adult education courses it is imperative to provide the best educational experience - and that usually means the best tutor.

This is right where the problem lies. The capacity of most organisations to obtain and then to maintain the best tutors is limited. The limitations are both practical and philosophical. Let's consider some of the practicalities - not necessarily in any order.

1. You take what you can get. Some organisations, particularly small country groups, use whatever tutor they can. They often don't have much of a choice. Sometimes the tutor is the only one available to teach in that subject. Sometimes they can be the only one who will teach for the fee.
2. A good subject specialist is not necessarily a good teacher. A good painter or potter cannot always transmit those skills to others - and yet the ones who could possibly be the best are not always obvious or available.
3. People who tutor in adult education often don't see themselves as teachers. A secondary teacher will identify themselves as a "teacher" first - not a subject specialist. Adult education tutors are often the opposite. Hence they don't always respond to "teacher oriented" training programs.
4. On the other hand trained teachers who teach adults part-time

often don't see themselves as requiring further skills - and yet there is quite a bit of evidence to show they could use the help.

5. People who tutor adults often do it as just one part of busy lives. Tutoring is often a fifth or sixth line priority after jobs, families and the like. Training programs that require significant time commitment are not seen as justifiable. If someone is only teaching a few hours a week and the available training programs require an extended commitment over a weekend or a number of nights, for instance, then they often won't see the need.

Those are not all the practical problems that present themselves in the training of sessional tutors. But perhaps they're enough. What of the philosophical issues? The main one is:

> Adult educators hold that adult education is on about people exchanging skills unfettered by credentials, certificates or statewide bureaucracies. If a person has knowledge or skill then it should be possible for her to transfer it to others. As a corollary, adult educators are reluctant to make any form of tutor training mandatory.

Adult educator administrators generally do not believe that their tutors should be credentialled but they say they believe in a high quality of presentation. That will help guarantee their organisation's continuity. The standard way to deal with this dilemma in other areas of society is to licence the practitioners; that is make them undergo a qualification period, pass exams, jump hoops. It's very valid. We all want to be assured that the 'professionals' we deal with are just that, 'professional'. I want to be sure that the pilot of my Boeing 747 has been thoroughly tested and not just trained in a role play on the back lot at QANTAS. I want to know that my pilot is credentialled.

But in adult education that is not considered desirable. As I have said it is resisted strongly as a concept by adult educators and the general run of tutors alike. So how do we answer the question of quality? What do we do to upgrade the skills of our tutors. If training is an answer, what do we do to make it:

1. Available
2. Accessible
3. Desirable

This is relatively easy from an armchair point of view. Work out the competencies or the training needs, develop a curriculum, a method of delivery and action it. The difficulty is that the tutors won't wear it. Valuable programs go unattended or only your best tutors show up - you know their performances are good anyway and they really don't need it.

There are many parts to this problem but one answer was to develop a profile of our tutors; knowing something about them might help us unravel the tangle of presentation and motivation. Hence the questionnaire. The gathered knowledge of tutors in the adult education system prior to this was pretty poor. However by 1986 a couple of other surveys in the pipeline will yield much more data than we have now.

The questionnaire was sent out to 1264 people; 750 of those were CAE tutors, the others were drawn from LAC's and Community Providers. The questionnaire was divided into seven areas set up for computer analysis with a subjective response area at the end that enabled people to comment more fully if they so desired.

Respondents returned 679 usable questionnaires. That is, 52% of the respondents returned the completed questionnaire. We received about 60% of the questionnaires back but a large proportion were returned uncompleted or only partially filled in. The questionnaire was a long one. This seems to have contributed to two quite different negative responses.

One I have designated the "J.C. Clunk" response, the other "IOTA Slide". The first is those people who said "Jesus Christ, they're crazy if they think I'm going to fill that in". The 'Clunk' is the questionnaire hitting the wastepaper basket. The second was less expected. When confronted with the questionnaire some people's response seemed to be "IOTA: I Only Teach A ... (single course or a little bit), they can't mean me to fill in all this". 'Slide' is the questionnnaire being pushed to one side.

These are subjective interpretations from answering the phone on the questionnaire and getting direct feedback from other people. The first response we anticipated - the second we weren't quite ready for and such responses may have had an effect on the results. Anyway 52% is a very acceptable result so we're led to believe, 40% is good and 60% is cause for delirium: We're right in between those two positions.

So what did we find? Fifty eight percent of the correspondents were women. This is not an unusual finding. Women tend to be predominant in adult education and although the figures are more even in the teaching segment as opposed to the student numbers, this figure represents the approximate breakdown of the people the questionnaire was sent to.

The first interesting finding was that nearly 80% of the respondents had a post-secondary qualification. Fifty two percent had university or College of Advanced Education degrees and 26% had diplomas or technical certificates. In the 1981 census 3% of Victorians had degrees and 13% had diplomas or certificates. This high level of credentialling would not be surprising in other sectors of education where certification is considered essential to employment, however, adult education has always said that it is on about exchanging skills and knowledge regardless of technical or educational qualification. It is apparent that while the rhetoric holds true the reality is different.

This finding is supported by the fact that almost half the respondents said that they had a teaching qualification of one sort or another. Adult education agencies do not require teacher qualifications either and in fact they expressly reject them in principle as not being necessary to teaching. That about one in two tutors holds a teacher credential and 4 out of 5 overall hold a post-secondary qualification is an interesting phenomenon. It is tempting to conject upon why agencies who reject credentialling and teaching qualifications especially, turn to such people in almost overwhelming numbers when it comes to putting people in front of a class. Is it their availability, their higher profile, the organisation's unstated preference? What?

The next significant finding was related to turnover rates. British findings of a few years back were that 60% of sessional tutors were in their first five years of teaching. That figure is replicated in this study. The turnover rate of sessional teachers is high. Every year about 10% of tutors are new to the system although about 18% indicated that they had been teaching for ten years or more. The dropoff rate seems to accelerate after five years indicating that such a time seems to be the period that most sessional tutors see as valid in terms of contributing their time and energy to adult education.

The next series of questions related to full-time and part-time employment and the like. These questions were included largely because it is surmised by some adult educators that adult education is largely supported by employment possibilities elsewhere, that is that tutors wouldn't or couldn't tutor in adult education if they were not in work at other places.

It is difficult to support or deny these suggestions on the findings of this questionnaire. Thirty five percent of tutors said they worked full-time as well as tutoring. Another 30% said they worked part-time as well as tutoring. That leaves at least a third who are not working in either full-time or part-time endeavours. That figure seemed a bit odd until it was looked at in terms of male/female ratios. Over 80% of males indicated that they were in full or part-time work, only some 50% of women indicated likewise.

To support this - about half of the women (190) indicated that adult education teaching was their main paid work commitment whereas only 15% of men said that was so. The next question was related to major income source. Thirty per cent of women indicated that their teaching was their main income source but only 11% of men commented likewise.

It has been said that adult education is a marginal discipline because it is largely an area of activity for women; it is further contended that while they are its main support it will remain a marginal discipline and practice. These figures, while they couldn't be used to support any elaborate political contentions certainly indicate that the motivation and involvement of men and women in adult education teaching is different. Women certainly see it more in terms of a vocational and life support system than men. The fact that teachers in adult education are actually members of a workforce rather than people who do it for 'pin money' should be used in arguments for the support and development of adult education.

Over a third of the recipients of the questionnaire indicated that their face-to-face teaching amounted to no more than 20 hours a year, and half taught no more than 50 hours a year. However 25% did say that they taught anything from one hundred hours up to a couple of thousand which isn't an insignificant figure. We seem to be dealing with a sessional population that on the one hand attracts a large number of people who have a quite small teaching commitment and yet there are others for whom it is a very substantial part of their existence. One way to explain this is to say that there may well be a percentage who view it as a hobby, an exciting but peripheral area of their lives, while for others it is a substantial source of income and a major commitment. This supports the findings of the previous paragraph.

We next asked a couple of questions about who had domestic responsibilities for children and how many children were involved. The first question "Do you have primary responsibility for the care of children?" gave us some questionable data. Forty per cent of women claimed that as their responsibility while the figure for men was 21%. This latter figure is interesting inasmuch as it was antithetical to my own experience that one in every five male has primary responsibility for children. There is reason to believe that some men may have interpreted domestic responsibility as financial but at this time we have no way of checking that out.

We then asked a number of questions about income and hours worked. The average teaching load for CAE sessional tutors was 95 hours a year at an average income of $18.60 per hour. Yet the average time spent per week on preparation, student contact hours, correction, contact with other staff is about another 3.5 hours with another one to two hours for travel. This brings it down to quite a small amount. When I checked the figures for LACs their average hourly salary was $11.60 with equivalent out of hours time. There is no way at the moment that these figures can be validated but it seems likely that sessional tutors are working in real terms for somewhere between $5 - $10 an hour. On that basis it is not surprising to note that the average staff development time per week for all CAE tutors was about nine minutes and I considered that a generous estimate. There is no financial motivation for tutors to attend staff development activities - they're not paid, they're not necessary to teaching and there is precious little compensation overall, so why go?

The actual questions on professional development came next. Half of the tutors responding ranked "The importance to them of opportunities to improve their effectiveness as adult teachers" as medium/low. Of course 50% ranked them highly. My own opinion beforehand was that the question was fairly much a 'motherhood' one and that everyone would have thought "Yes - of course I rate the opportunity for training highly". At that point we weren't asking them to do anything. So the fact that half considered development opportunities as relatively unimportant was surprising to me. It has not yet been possible to dissect the responses to see how those with/without teacher qualifications answered that question. It would seem important to know any terms of the content, style and direction of such program.

Anyway next we asked how many had actually attended professional development programs. Twenty eight percent said they had - which was encouraging particularly as well over half said such programs weren't available in their areas anyhow.

When they were asked about what they wanted in terms of development most of them plumped for "subject" oriented programs. This is not new. Adult education tutors frequently complain that general courses in adult learning really don't cover the particular needs and nuances of their subject. When given the chance they will chat on interminably about the special difficulties their subject entails. For adult education training authorities this is particularly difficult as the subjects taught cover an enormous range. The list of subject types used in the questionnaire was sixty long. Even clustering it into like areas still leaves a significant range of subject skills to be developed. What the tutors rejected were the nuts and bolts skills such as Audio-Visual, voice production etc. They also weren't interested in self-development, assertion courses, stress management and the like.

The formats they wanted training activities to be packaged in were not particularly surprising either. It has been a strongly held belief at the CAE that tutors respond better to programs run by practicing fellow tutors. This option received the greatest approbation and the least objection.

The greatest negative response was to home study kits and self-directed learning programs and yet they showed quite a positive response to general written materials as a way of learning.

The brief section that was included under Evaluation revealed that if there is to be evaluation, sessional tutors would rather them be informal - either student or institution generated. They heavily rejected formal institutional evaluation and again they rejected the owner-onus model by disapproving of self-assessment using kits.

The facilities and circumstances that sessional tutors operate in are diverse, to say the least. The biases of the tutors who prepared the questions seemed to show here in that there were 27 separate headings under Facilities and Supports ranging from classroom and teaching space to course advertising, and stopping at the toilet facilities and the library holdings along the way. It is difficult to identify any one trend among the numbers here but it is apparent that tutors work in some extremely trying conditions. In the open section at the end some of the most scathing comments were reserved for facilities. One tutor summed it up by referring to the "heavy emotional and time commitments often due to the lack of sufficient and relevant support services".

We put in a section that could best be summed up as induction matters; that is, what did they tell you when you first began work as a tutor. It was apparent that the employing organisations were better at providing technical details about services and facilities than they were on providing data on the nature and needs of students and appropriate teaching methods. However since these items were not particularly endorsed as training needs it is hard to know whether they found the absence particularly distressing.

It needs to be said again that these findings are incomplete inasmuch as we have not been able to cross-reference all the particular details we would like at this time. Neither have we been able to adequately summarise those questions in the survey that allowed for further comment although a precis version of these comes later.

When one has plodded through the reams of computer paper that we already have in search of the "average" tutor it is apparent that there are some real anomalies in adult education tutoring. One may question why people work for what at times seems so little return and one is tempted to ask why they do it when the facilities and services don't always seem to match up. One answer is that they don't. They give it up. The high turnover rate is indicative of that.

The dubious status of adult tutoring as a profession and a means to a living is highlighted. Adult education has for many years strongly pursued the notion that all we are on about is helping adults learn from other adults. It has similarities to the old religious ideas of a "calling". One is asked by God as the adult education organiser (and some of our tutors run in fear of them both) to teach but you really shouldn't ask for much because you have been blessed with this unique gift or talent that you now have the right and privilege to share with others.

This is nonsense. Answers to questions indicate that there are a significant number of people for whom adult education is a means to a living. Sure, it still has those who teach for love of subject and their enthusiasm will always be welcome. But it should not be used as a justification for low pay and low status for all.

This brings us to the last pages of the Questionnaire which were open-ended. Joanne Lee Dow, a CAE Tutor and co-designer of the questionnaire, has summarised the answers to the questions asked and what follows is her encapsulation of the trends and the highlights of the responses.

QUESTION ONE: WHY DO YOU WORK AS AN ADULT TEACHER?

The most noticable feature of replies to this question was the difference between plain, even bald, language and the quality of the replies, which were charged with feeling. Many were brief and simple: "I love it"; "For enjoyment"; but the cumulative effect of reading through the answers to this question is to be made aware of the excitement, enthusiasm and dedication of adult educators as a group. They find their work "stimulating", "fulfilling", "fascinating", "wonderful".

This pleasure in adult education was strongly linked by respondents with the qualities of adults as learners, and I'll talk about them later. The other strong motivation for adult educators was their sense of having a skill, or knowledge on a loved subject, which they wanted to share. Fewer than one quarter of respondents mention money as a reason for their adult education work, and of those, several mention it *after* one of the factors above. A few, however, offer it as their *only* reason.

Other reasons offered include: social contact; a preference for adult education over school teaching; a sense of citizenship and meeting a social need; personal growth for the tutor; a commitment to life long learning (our phrase - but it's the most accurate we could find for this group); flexibility of hours and approach; maintenance of tutors' skills.

QUESTION TWO: HOW DID YOU BECOME INVOLVED AS AN ADULT TEACHER?

In the sample of replies so far analysed four ways emerge as almost equally weighted.

1. The tutor network brought new tutors in.
2. The tutor was approached by the institution.
3. The tutor took the initiative and made the approach.
4. Involvement in some other form of community work with adults (eg: with unemployed, with the armed services, with the Country Women's Association, with ambulance services) led to links with adult education.

A minority (10% on present figures, and these mainly CAE tutors) answered an advertisement for tutors. An even smaller minority still gave unclear answers - eg: "I was asked to:"

Finally, about 15% of replies seem to have been so involved in answering question one, that in question two they are still writing about *why* they work as adult teachers, although ostensibly answering this question about *how* they became involved.

QUESTION THREE: WHAT HAS MOST HELPED YOU TO DEVELOP AS AN ADULT TEACHER?

This question received a variety of answers, but one factor stood out - *the adult students*. About one-third of respondents nominated the adult students themselves as developing adult teachers, and about half of these went on to specify the active nature of voluntary adult learners, from whom they got a lot of feedback, positive and negative, and on whose maturity, responsiveness, enthusiasm and keenness they commented.

The next most frequently mentioned factor was the actual experience of adult teaching. Many respondents recorded their perception that "doing it" was the thing which most helped their development.

Contact with other tutors, interest in the subject area, other personal and life experiences, and other teaching experiences were also recurring themes, as was the tutor's experience of being a student. The Council of Adult Education's Workshop for Tutors drew some favourable comment.

Other individual responses included "God", "The Zen Discipline", "Myself", "Support from my Co-ordinator", "My Work with [Joe Bloggs]", "Reading and Research", etc.

QUESTION FOUR: WHAT ASPECT(S) OF YOUR ADULT TEACHING WORK DO YOU LIKE MOST?

Two answers emerged very strongly here - the students, and social interaction.

About half of the respondents nominated the growth and enjoyment of students and/or the active and voluntary nature of adults as learners. Again, this question drew answers which were full of feeling. Adult students are perceived by their tutors as "attentive", "keen", "eager", "motivated", "understanding", "animated and excited about learning". Tutors comment on the joy of "seeing a person fall in love with something new", "develop skills they didn't know they had", and on their responsiveness.

About one-third of respondents nominated social interaction as what they liked most.

The next most frequently mentioned source of satisfaction was the sharing of a skill, or knowledge, or a loved craft or subject, and a few linked this to self-development in subject area.

There were some comments on the virtues of adult learners contrasted with the difficulties of children ("undisciplined", "immature"), and on the advantages of flexibility in adult education. This latter theme was summed up eloquently by one respondent's reply: "The satisfaction, success and stimulation ... from developing a completely alternative, original concept in education".

QUESTION FIVE: WHAT ASPECT(S) OF YOUR ADULT TEACHING DO YOU LIKE LEAST?

This question, like all the others, was simply left unanswered by some respondents. But it was noticeable that a minority clearly wished to record that there was no aspect of their adult teaching which they did not like.

Three factors received heavy stress. Of these, the lack of physical support facilities for classes was most frequently noted. Some replies were in general terms; eg: "The appalling lack of facilities for a course which badly needs them"; others were more specific ("teaching aids not available when planned", "no storage space", "cleaning up"). The theme of these replies was summed up in the quotation mentioned earlier on the "heavy emotional and time commitments often due to the lack of sufficient and relevant support services".

The next most frequent dislike was the tutor's employment terms, particularly as these impinged on insecurities about the continuity of the class(es). By contrast with the strong positive feelings elicited elsewhere, these replies recorded strong negative feelings, eg: "That after 17 years with the one institution I'm not eligible for one hour's sick pay if I can't make it to class"; "the feeling that I'm peripheral at the place where I teach".

The other recurring dislike was the demands of sessional, usually night, teaching on top of an already busy life. This was compounded for some by the stress of travelling to and from teaching.

A small but vocal proportion of replies commented negatively on features of adult classes and students. There was criticism of the educational disadvantages of the time constraints within and on classes, and some terse comments on drop-outs (especially without explanation) and the lack of commitment and seriousness by some students.

Some tutors clearly dislike the sense of failure when a student doesn't learn or a class isn't successful.

One reply read, "Answering these forms and kindred bookwork".

LAST PAGE - OPEN ANSWER

This open page - "Please use the space below if you wish to comment on any, other aspect of your adult teaching or on this questionnaire" - was not used by the majority of respondents. Some gave inexperience or infrequent teaching as the reason for not answering. "I am only teaching very occasionally"; "seeing I only have such a little time at this work each year, I do not think there is much point filling in any more". Many who did reply, did so at length - and their replies make wonderful reading.

The questionnaire itself drew a small number of comments, sharply divided. The positive ones thanked us for our interest, for the chance to express their opinions about their work and for what they had learned from filling in the questionnaire. The negative replies fell into two groups. The general ones may be summed up in this reply: "I hate questionnaires. They put you into a false position by their cut and dried nature". The more specific ones questioned assumptions which they felt were implicit in our questionnaire. [The perceptions of this do not always agree with the tutor-designers'.] For example, one respondent found the order of our questionnaire "appears to be in order of importance" and therefore felt that qualifications were highly rated: "Even though I have no formal teaching qualification I believe I, and many other experienced people in the community, have both knowledge and capabilities to educate others".

Other respondents also stressed the importance of not losing the flexibility and responsiveness of adult education by over-professionalising it. One respondent ("I hate questionnaires") concluded with a strong summary of the nature and limitation of his/her own involvement and interest:

- I taught myself to teach.
- My classes are popular.
- I have no interest in learning about teaching.
- I like my craft and most of the people.

- I care very little about the institution, structure or auspices under which I teach. Good luck.

Comments on the back page cover a wide variety of subjects and exhibit some quite dramatic polarisation of perceptions.

In the replies so far analysed, the most frequent theme is strongly negative about the terms and conditions of tutor's employment.

> "The poorly paid and contract worker (professional?) is at the bottom of the organisation hierarchy and inevitably perceived as such".

> "Adult teaching is immensely enjoyable, however poorly paid for sessional tutors, in my case HSC, given the amount of time and responsibility involved, especially in comparison to the wages and conditions offered in fractional or permanent employment".

Another respondent, in a page-long analysis of the inadequacies of sessional contract for tutors, links these with student conditions:

> "I think two hours a week contact time with adult students is too little; it frustrates continuity and the chance to develop relationships more - my relationship with them and their relationships with each other".

Yet another points to the difficulty for tutors of getting information into the system and participating in decisions:

> "I sometimes feel an enormous frustration that tutors, who are often closest to students and understand their needs, have very limited or no way of feeding this information into the system that supposedly serves them. Tutors may be encouraged to have their say on relevant issues but there is often the fatalistic feeling that administrators will go away and make their own decisions anyway".

Such comments - and there were many - were at the other end of the pendulum from the respondent who warned:

> "Too many tutors expect too high a remuneration. They'll dig their own grave unless they're careful".

And another who stated:

> "We should be concerned less about teachers and more about students".

Whereas the overall comments by tutors on students were warmly positive, this page included some strong negative comment:

> "Too many expect to start off playing Beethoven".

> "I wish the students were not so passive".

> "I think basically adult education is a mockery. The people who enrol (in CAE) do not really want to learn. They are not prepared to work hard. They want to be titivated, distracted, fed crumbs, and to give themselves a mild alleviation from boredom and a mild self-reassurance that they are superior souls who are "still learning", ie: not standing still, not stagnating. But all this is fake. They enrol with CAE specifically because there are no exams, no tests which have to be passed. They do not want to advance.

> "All this is soul-destroying for anyone keen on his or her subject - for any such teacher, or for any such student. If I find any student

> who is keen, I tell them to quit CAE classes as soon as they can: a little bit of CAE is OK, to start someone off, but to stay longer is to condemn oneself forever to the kindergarten".

One theme in this found several echoes. Many tutors stress the difficulty of catering for different levels of knowledge, ability and enthusiasm in the one class; and some link this with the need for more careful placement of students in classes. Several stated that they would like an advanced class.

> "You feel as if you are forever beginning - that there is no planned progression".

One respondent stressed the importance of not replicating what s/he perceived as the too-great emphasis "on intellectual and mental (academic) frames of reference" at the expense of "awareness and personal growth", and expressed the hope that "TAFE and CAE will grow to be in the vanguard of the resolution of educational needs and advances in their country".

Many others stressed the importance of adult education, but expressed the conviction that it is not taken seriously enough and, particularly, is not properly funded.

Most of the other themes raised repeated ones dealt with elsewhere in the questionnaire. But one reply caught a tone and attitude which provide a good finishing note:

> "I think it's wonderful that people of all ages can go and learn whatever their heart desires. I also think it's wonderful that people like myself, who for some reason or other couldn't finish school, yet we have a chance to share our knowledge and teach other people something we have learnt and enjoy very much. I'm very grateful to adult education for giving me this chance. I hope my answers are helpful to you".

That is an appropriate place to finish. I would like to publicly thank Joanne for her comments on the last pages which, in my hurry to prepare this paper, I have virtually used verbatim. We will continue to analyse these questionnaires and a more formal analysis will be available from the Council of Adult Education, 256 Flinders Street, Melbourne, Victoria 3000, later in the year. In the meantime, I hope this initial presentation has been interesting and has helped cast some light on the "Face of Adult Education?"

TRANBY ABORIGINAL COLLEGE:

Report of Special Interest Group

1. HISTORY

Tranby College has been a pioneer in Aboriginal post-secondary education. The college was started in 1958 by Alf Clint, an Anglican priest, who worked with Aboriginal communities to set up co-operatives, including a fishing co-operative at Lockhart River in North Queensland and a bakery at Yarrabah.

Later Tranby's activities changed to training Aboriginal people in running co-operatives. Students have come from all over Australia, and many people active in Aboriginal affairs today were once students at Tranby.

Despite its important role, it was not until 1982 and after a long struggle that Tranby began to receive government funds to develop its courses and take on more students. This year there are around 85 students in four main courses.

Throughout its history, Tranby has been supported by Aboriginal groups, trade unions, church groups, and individuals.

Tranby has been forced to close down for periods in the past due to lack of funds.

2. EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY

Tranby has always played an important role in the Aboriginal struggle and taken a strong and active position on issues such as land rights and Aboriginal control. The administrator/General Secretary, (Kevin Cook), the Director of Studies (Helen Boyle), and 2 of the 4 full time teaching staff are Aboriginal. Tranby also has an all Aboriginal Board of Studies who aim to determine the educational direction of the college and carry out regular community consultations.

Because Tranby is Aboriginal run and independent, it has been able to follow its own directions in developing modes of education that will suit different Aboriginal communities.

Courses at Tranby have come from what Aboriginal people have wanted, not governments. They are drawn up by talking to Aboriginal groups not designed and imposed from the outside. Because Tranby has aimed to meet community needs first, it has pioneered courses that have later been taken up by other institutions (for example, the first Aboriginal tertiary preparation course in 1983, and the first site curators course in 1984-5).

Tranby offers components in Aboriginal Studies in all its courses, and our experience has been that this has often been crucial for the confidence and personal development of students in other areas of their courses. Aboriginal studies includes an understanding of the different ways Aboriginal people live and their responses to colonialism at a personal and a political level.

Since adult learners have different skills and experiences, Tranby designs all its courses to allow for the individual's needs and interests, using electives, small groups and one-to-one tuition.

3. CURRENT COURSES:

3.1 Skills

An 18 weeks f/t course concentrating on literacy, numeracy, Aboriginal studies and living skills, run through Tranby's Literacy Unit.

3.2 Business Studies

A 36 weeks f/t course for people wishing to consolidate their education and to develop clerical and administration skills to work in Aboriginal organisations or the public service. Recognised by the NSW and Commonwealth Public Service Boards as equivalent to the H.S.C.

3.3 Tertiary Entrance Preparatory Course

A 36 weeks f/t course for people preparing to undertake tertiary studies in the social sciences, law, welfare or health sciences. As above, recognised as equivalent to H.S.C.

In both courses, students study core subjects (Aboriginal Studies, Communication, Maths) and choose from a range of electives to suit their interests and needs.

3.4 Site Curators Course

A one year sessional course comprising 10 two week blocks for trainees employed by Regional Land Councils. The major part of the course covers the skills required to survey, record and protect Aboriginal sites. The course has a literacy/numeracy component, and also covers administrative aspects of a site curators job.

4. RESOURCES AT TRANBY FOR EDUCATION & TRAINING

While in some respects Tranby is impoverished and overcrowded, over the years it has developed special resources for Aboriginal adult education and training, especially in the experience and contacts of people involved in and around the college.

4.1 Community contact

Tranby has built up an extensive network of contacts in Aboriginal communities and organisations, and people from all over Australia are continually dropping in to the college and becoming involved with students. In particular, the co-operative has been closely involved with the development of Aboriginal Lands Councils.

4.2 Staff

As well as their professional qualifications, staff at Tranby have generally had considerable involvement with Aboriginal organisations. Non-Aboriginal teachers have been chosen for their suitability by Aboriginal staff, who also run in-service programs to train them for working with Aboriginal people.

4.3 Literacy Unit

In its first year of operation, the unit is responsible for the skills course as well as providing literacy and numeracy tuition to any students who require it at the College. In addition, the unit is used by Aboriginal people on a casual and part time basis.

The Unit is currently developing a Home Tutor Training Scheme to train Aboriginal people to be tutors in literacy and numeracy. The Unit is also working on producing its own materials for Aboriginal literacy, since many conventional materials are inappropriate.

4.4 Library and Information Resources Centre

The Centre has an extensive collection of Aboriginal Studies material including books, journals, and audio-visual resources, as well as a general collection used by staff and students in their work. The centre is equipped with 3/4 and ½ inch video, micro fiche readers, film, film strip and slide project. Resources can be used by Aboriginal organisations at the centre.

4.5 Black Books

The Co-operative's specialist bookshop supplies books and audio-visual materials by and about Aborigines to schools, training courses etc. as well as the college's educational and training resources.

4.6 Computer facilities

The college is currently implementing phase 1 of a plan to introduce micro computers for teaching in literacy, maths and specialist areas, as well as familiarising students with the use of computers in organisations.

TRAINING, FROM WOMEN'S PERSPECTIVES

This short workshop took place as a result of requests from women participants at the Conference.

There was a shared belief that gender was an important issue in considering adult education training.

Women make up a majority of adult learners enrolled in non-credit courses. They are less represented in certain training courses (e.g., private industry and in accredited tertiary training courses). They are the majority of programmers of community-based adult education agencies. Despite the important contribution to adult education by women, they still have to struggle to achieive visibility or more than token recognition and to have their particular needs and interests addressed.

We discussed the issue of accreditation of adult education training courses. One issue was the value of short courses which currently are not accredited as an adult education qualification. Another issue was the need for existing courses to be more flexible in their design, timing of sessions and modes of delivery to give greater opportunity of access to women whose commitments prevent them from attending courses as scheduled over two/three year periods.

Out of a discussion about the undervalued and invisible skills of women adult educators, we thought that the Participants' Survey at this Conference could provide important information which would be of great assistance to future organisers of AAAE conferences and workshops.

We supported AAAE in its intended formation of a Women in Adult Education Network. We stressed the importance of AAAE developing policies on adult education concerning women, and applying those policies seriously.

We stressed the need for affirmative action on behalf of women in adult education and put forward the following recommendations to the Conference plenary session –

1 a That future AAAE conferences and seminars include female keynote speakers.
  b That female keynote speakers be offered 'prime time' for their presentations.
2 a That women who have less experience at presenting be encouraged to contribute to AAAE activities.
  b That less experienced female presenters be programmed in such a way as to maximize their opportunities to succeed.
  c That organisers of future conferences and workshops encourage women to give papers and conduct workshops.
3 That future conference organisers, in soliciting papers and briefing people, indicate:
  a their sensitivity to and support of sex-neutral and culturally-neutral language, and
  b the need to recognise the value of women's experience and presence in adult education.
4 That childcare be advertised and provided at all conferences of the AAAE.

TRAINING ADULT EDUCATORS:

A CASE STUDY

Dr Mark Tennant

Adult educators work in an enormous variety of settings; in industry, commerce, government departments, welfare agencies, professional associations, consultancies, educational institutions and community based organisations. They may be referred to as voluntary workers, education officers, trainers, co-ordinators, staff development officers, teachers, lecturers, tutors, personnel officers, or consultants. Collectively they provide a range of formal and non-formal programs for adults variously labelled 'refresher courses', 'continuing education', 'community education', 'extra-mural courses', 'outreach', or 'professional development' courses.

In its broadest sense then, adult education constitutes a vast area of educational provision, but the training and professional development of adult educators in Australia is still in its infancy. The Sydney College of Advanced Education, through its Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education (ITATE), has pioneered a number of programs which provide professional qualifications for adult educators. This paper describes the structure of these programs, outlines their rationale, and discusses some of the issues and problems which have emerged in their implementation.

Structure of Programs

The common structure of adult education programs at ITATE[1] is outlined in Table 1. Each program has four components,[2] comprising:

1 Seminars: which are designed to provide: an overview or framework which covers the program content, expert input, a model of teaching which demonstrates the way adult learning principles can operate in practice, and a forum where students meet regularly in a large group (15-25).

2 Workshops: which provide an opportunity for students to work in small groups. Students, in groups of 5 or 6, are required to plan and implement two-day workshops which are attended by students in the larger group.

3 Learning contracts: which allow students, in consultation with a staff adviser, to design and implement their own learning activities. The emphasis is on making the learning contracts relevant to those professional and personal needs of the students which are consistent with the aims of the program. A learning contract is an agreement between a student and a staff adviser that the student will undertake a specified activity and produce evidence that the activity was successfully completed.

---

[1] At the time of writing, two awards are offered: an Associate Diploma in Adult Education (with two strands, one for 'community educators; and one for 'trainers'); and a Graduate Diploma in Adult Education, in which there is a general program and a program specifically catering for adult basic educators. Currently there is a proposal to offer a Bachelor of Education (Adult) with a provision for students to exit with a Diploma in Adult Education.

[2] The Graduate Diploma in Adult Education (Basic Education) has an additional component: tutorials.

TABLE 1 : STRUCTURE OF ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS AT ITATE

	SEMINARS (weekly meeting)	WORKSHOPS	LEARNING CONTRACTS	FIELD EXPERIENCE
RESPONSIBILITY	Staff (Needs-based planning)	Student Planning Committee works with staff adviser	Student (Planned in consultation with a staff adviser)	Student (Negotiated with a staff adviser and employer
DELIVERY	Structured input: eg Lectures; discussions; set readings; student presentations.	Workshop Sessions: conducted by staff, students, guests.	Self-direction with staff monitoring and advising students.	Student demonstrates competency in work setting
STUDENT ROLE	Contributes to needs assessment; active participant	Contributes to planning; responsible for specific tasks; participates in workshop sessions; conducts evaluation	Develops and achieves learning objectives relevant to needs and consistent with program objectives	Plan and demonstrate appropriate competence in work setting - e.g. teaching, tutoring, administration
STAFF ROLE	Conducts needs assessment; develops resources; manages learning activities	Assists planning group to develop and achieve workshop objectives within the framework of the program	Assist students to identify specific learning objectives and to plan strategies for achieving objectives; to evaluate student achievement	Observe and advise on performance; to evaluate student competence.

4 Field experience: which refers to students' work (paid or unpaid) in adult education. This provides a context for the development of learning contracts and setting for students to demonstrate their competence in adult education.

Each program has a particular curriculum content which is expressed in terms of a set of competencies to be achieved. However, this paper will focus exclusively on the common structure of provision, which attempts to provide a balance between individual and group learning, between theory and practice, between needs and aims, and between staff input and student output.

Rationale, Issues and Problems

The evolving structure described above has been influenced by employers, practitioners, academics, representatives of professional associations and student representatives. In addition, four areas of scholarship and debate within adult education have had a central influence:

1 Policy statements by state, national and international governments, authorities and organisations. (eg OECD, 1973, 1975, 1977, 1979; UNESCO 1972, 1976; Kangan Report 1974; Kirby Report 1984)

2 Psychological and educational literature which supports the idea of self-directed learning, especially for adults (eg Houle, 1972; Knowles, 1975, 1978, 1980; Boud, 1981; Mezirow, 1981)

3 Research demonstrating the prevalence and/or efficacy of self-initiated or self-directed learning (eg Johnstone and Rivera, 1965; Tough, 1979, 1981; Lawrence, 1974; Caffarella, 1983)

4 Educational and sociological commentary in the field of adult education (eg Lovett, 1975; Gelpi, 1979; Lawson, 1979; Boshier, 1980; Lovell, 1980; Mee, 1980; Thompson, 1980; Griffin 1983)

Common themes in the above four areas have contributed to an emerging ethos of adult education. These themes include the following: autonomy and self direction, needs-based provision, the redefinition of the teacher/learner relationship, the integration of education and work, the promotion of collaborative group learning, and the distinction between adult and child learners. The adult education programs at ITATE reflect these themes, and in so doing, they mirror the conflicts and contradictions contained within them.

Table 2 shows how each of the abovementioned themes finds expression in an aspect of ITATE's adult education programs. These themes, and the issues contained within them are illustrated and expanded in the remainder of this paper.

Autonomy and Self-direction

The concept of the autonomous self-directed learner is a pervasive one in adult education. The idea of learners taking responsibility and control of their learning has been a consistent feature of the literature, albeit for quite diverse reasons. Knowles (1978) for example, argues that psychological development proceeds from dependency in infancy and childhood towards autonomy and self direction in adulthood. This fact of psychological growth, he argues, deems it imperative that adult educators adopt self-directed learning approaches.

TABLE 2 ADULT EDUCATION THEMES AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO ITATE'S ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

	BASIC THEMES	PROGRAM COMPONENTS
1	Autonomy and self direction	Learning contract: the primary means of assessment.
2	Needs-based provision	· Practitioners, employers, representatives of professional organisations, student reps and academics determine competencies and program structure · Learning contracts based on individual needs · Seminars and workshops designed with consultation on 'needs'
3	Teacher/learner relationship	Advisers allocated to students. These advisers work collaboratively with students, their brief is to provide support for students in their learning contracts
4	Integration of education and work	· Concurrent work experience is a requirement for admission · Learning contracts are based on work problems, skills etc. · Field experience is a component of the programs
5	Collaborative group learning	· Workshops are planned by a committee of 5-6 students · Seminars utilise group planning and presentations on, say, special interest topics. · Tutorials provide small group meetings on a regular basis (5 to 6 students)
6	The distinction between adult and child learners	Programs are based on a number of assumptions about adults as learners. These assumptions are drawn from theory, research and practitioner experience.

Mezirow (1981) views self-directedness as 'the goal and the means of adult education', in his view it is the role of adult educators to 'progressively decrease the learners dependency on the educator'. Tough (1979) has documented the pervasiveness of self-directed learning in the community at large, arguing that up to 80 percent of 'learning projects' are designed and managed outside educational institutions - the implication is that these institutions need to adapt to the reality of self-planned adult learning. The UNESCO position is quite explicit: 'adult education methods should take account of the ability of adults to assume responsibility for their own learning' (UNESCO 1976). Finally, it can be argued that self-directed learning is preferable because it is efficacious, as Lawrence (1974) found in his review of the literature on effective in-service teacher education, and as Caffarella (1983) reports.

The central focus of ITATE's adult education programs is the learning contract. It is the principal means of self-directed learning, and the only means of assessment. The learning contract method allows students to participate with staff in determining the content, processes, timing and planning of learning. Contracts can be long (say 10,000 words) or short (say 500 words); they can be presented in writing, audio-visually or orally; they can be completed at home, at work, at college, on weekdays, at night, or in the morning, they can be work related, academic, personal or community oriented. There are three basic constraints placed on learning contracts; firstly, a specified amount of work must be completed over a given period (students are assessed at the completion of a year's work); secondly, all learning contracts must be relevant to the field of adult education and must cover a minimum range of adult education competencies; thirdly, learning contracts must be negotiated with a staff adviser, whose role is to assist, provide feedback, monitor a student's progress, and evaluate the quality of completed contracts.

A standard learning contract proposal form is used, which requires a student to specify what is to be learned (objective), how it is to be learned (strategies and resources), what is to be produced as evidence of learning and how the learning is to be assessed. It also has entries for the commencement and completion dates and the specific program competencies being addressed.

There are a number of issues and problems relating to learning contracts. These are well illustrated by considering Knowles' (1978) advocacy of the learning contract method. This method, we are told, provides for self-direction, utilises the learner's experience, relates easily to the immediate concerns of adults, and fosters a problem-centred orientation to be interpreted in a number of ways; as an initial guide to assist adult learners towards self direction; as a process of learning appropriate for adults who have already attained the capacity to be self-directed; or as a means through which individual needs can be reconciled with institutional or organisational demands. The first interpretation requires the assumption that adults are, in fact, NOT self directing and that they need to be weaned away from traditional educational consumption. Those who subscribe to this view caution us against the too abrupt introduction of self directed learning; they argue that this type of learning should be the goal of adult education rather that its starting point. Not surprisingly, the reasons for a stance such as this may be quite disparate; ranging from a paternalistic and manipulative attitude towards adult learners, through to a genuine concern with providing supports for self directed learning efforts.

The second interpretation assumes that self directed learners have the capacity to control and plan the content and processes through which they learn. Ironically though, while adult educators are admonished by Knowles for structuring the CONTENT of a course, they are praised and given guidance for structuring the PROCESSES to be followed in a course. But why should self directed learners follow the processes advocated by Knowles? Surely the imposition of a process can be just as restrictive and alienating as the imposition of content? A glance at the mechanics of the learning contract will illustrate this, the various steps in developing a learning contract are: 'diagnose your learning needs', 'specify your learning objectives', 'specify how the evidence will be validated', 'review your contract with consultants', 'carry out the contract', 'evaluate your learning' (Knowles, 1978, 199-203). Taken together these steps portray a view that knowledge (and skills and attitudes) is measurable, that it lies along a continuum from 'more' to 'less', that it can be specified in terms of objectives (what about subjectives) and that it should be validated and evaluated externally (through experts). In this scenario the learning process is represented as mechanical, rational and logical, and it is difficult to see how creative, problem-posing learning can emerge from it. At best, what is offered is a truncated version of self direction: the student directs the content, the educator directs the processes.

The third interpretation above, that the learning contract is a means of reconciling individual needs with organisational goals, is another illustration of Knowles' emasculated self directed learning. It is unreasonable to expect individual needs, at all times, to be in harmony with organisational goals, and in instances of conflict, individual needs may well be compromised. The issue raises a still more fundamental question, is the learning contract a tool for learning or a tool for educators, trainers and managers?

All these issues have found expression in ITATE's programs. What should be the starting point for developing a contract? Should the student begin with a competency they wish to develop and then seek to obtain the necessary knowledge and skill relating to the competency? Or should the student begin with a problem or concern arising from experience at work?

Should advisers act as supervisors and 'prod' students to complete their work, or should they simply remain passive and allow students to control the pace at which they work? Should advisers insist that the contract be adhered to in a legalistic sense, or should they use the contract as a guide only? Should students be expected to commence the program using learning contracts or should the successful use of learning contracts be a goal of the programs? Under what circumstances should a contract be failed? Should students be given unlimited opportunities to complete their contracts satisfactorily? These questions, and others like them, highlight the contradictions entailed in promoting autonomy and self direction in an award-giving institutional setting. They also reflect some of the misgivings that have been expressed above and elsewhere about the whole concept of self-directed adult learners. (Griffen, 1983; Hartree, 1984; Tennant, 1985).

Needs-based provision

The idea of meeting 'needs' is part of the ethos of adult education. It is a taken-for-granted concept that rarely draws attention to itself. Practitioners often respond with disbelief when criticism of the concept is proferred, they react as if the idea of 'meeting needs' were so obvious as to be unquestionable.

Yet the concept of 'need' HAS been questioned and its use within adult education criticised both from a radical perspective (Keddie, 1980; Armstrong, 1982; Griffin, 1983) and a traditional 'philosophy of education' perspective (Hirst and Peters, 1970). Jane Thompson (1985) has referred to the obsession with 'meeting needs' as the 'wishing-well' syndrome, symptomatic of liberal-progressive educational thought.

The bulk of criticisms of the concept fall into two distinct categories; the first concerns the logical difficulties in establishing how needs are to be met (eg. distinguishing group, community and individual needs; and wants, demands and needs), and the second addresses the ideological workings of the need concept in adult education. Griffin (1983) neatly summarises the latter criticisms:

'In the end, whether we are talking of schooling or of adult learning, the content is an object of decision-making processes in which some priorities come to prevail over others, and substituting an ideology of needs for a philosophy of aims does not fundamentally change this reality..... It is a weakness of the uncritical account of need to neglect the social conditions in which they are, quite literally, created, and the role of professional workers in the creation of, as well as response to, need' (p.75).

The argument is that adult educators ignore the social and professional construction of needs; that they by-pass issues of aims and avoid the ethical issues by reducing decision making to a purely 'technical' exercise. In practice too, the needs of the non-participants are often unknown and unsolicited and the educationally disadvantaged are caught in a vicious circle: '....poor childhood conditions, short formal education, low educational standard in adult life, reduced opportunities for participating in political life, no influence through participation etc' (Rubenson 1983, 26). Repeated research findings which show that adult education caters largely for the middle class (Rubenson 1983; Duke, 1984; Sumner, 1984) provides testimony to these claims; so too does the research of Mee and Wiltshire (1978) which shows how a common core curriculum has come to dominate adult education institutions in the United Kingdom.

Nevertheless the idea of meeting needs, or some version of it, has widespread support among adult educators. In Mezirow's (1981) 'Charter for Andragogy', one role allotted to the adult educator is to 'assist the learner to define his/her learning needs - both in terms of immediate awareness and of assumptions influencing his/her perceptions of needs'. Knowles (1978) portrays this role in quite different terms 'the teacher helps each student diagnose the gap between his aspiration and his present level of performance'; for Knowles, identifying needs is the first and most important step towards self-directed learning. UNESCO's (1976) recommendation is that 'adult education activities should normally be planned and executed on the basis of identified needs, problems, wants and resources, as well as defined objectives'; this statement refers to meeting needs in a collective rather than individual sense, but it contains within it the promise of consultation and participation.

One of the advantages of the learning contract method is that it addresses students' perceived learning needs (insofar as they relate to the competencies prescribed in the program). Through their adviser, students are encouraged to identify their needs by reflecting on the competencies they wish to improve for professional vocational, recreational or personal reasons. In addition, the workshops provide students, through the planning committee, with experience in designing a program to meet the needs of the larger group. Through the workshop planning committee then, the issues and problems involved in meeting needs are highlighted (ie how are needs best identified? How can individual needs be reconciled with group needs? What is the distinction between needs, wants, interests and demands?) Although the seminars are the responsibility of staff, staff members are expected to model good adult education practice and base their courses on the needs of students. Finally, the competencies which form the parameters within which the programs operate are derived and monitored through consultation with practitioners, academics, professional associations and employing authorities. In this way the 'needs' of the profession and the workplace delineate the boundaries of what is to be considered 'legitimate' adult education. The idea of meeting needs is thus a central organising principle; through which individual contracts, workshops, seminars and competencies are formulated or designed and managed.

A possible line of criticism of ITATE's adult education programs is that they are characterised solely by techniques, methods and administrative processes which effectively 'neutralise' the curriculum issues relating to the social, cultural and political content of teaching. That is, the programs are defined by competencies and processes which meet needs rather than by subjects and content which are directed by aims. The result of this tension between the 'needs' and 'aims' approach has been a shift away from programs which are solely 'needs meeting mechanisms' towards programs which are more critical of the way in which needs are defined and articulated. For example, staff members are taking a more active and clearly defined role as 'experts' in designing seminars, and the aims of some programs (eg Graduate Diploma) have emerged more strongly and are increasingly referring to the acquisition of skills, techniques and knowledge rather than to the development of processes within the individual. but the tension between needs and aims is crystallised, once again, in the adviser/student relationship. Should the adviser's role be restricted to assisting students diagnose their needs, or should advisers be active in challenging students' expressed needs where appropriate? Perhaps the ideal adviser is similar to Freire's (1972) problem-posing educator 'the problem posing educator constantly re-forms his reflections in the reflection of the students. The students - no longer docile listeners - are now critical co-investigators in dialogue with the teacher..' (p.54). There may be a conflict between the aim of promoting an inquiring, critical approach in the learner; and the prescription to allow learners to define their own needs.

There are other practical conflicts in implementing a needs-based approach. There is the inevitable conflict between group and individual needs, and the ever present problem of distinguishing between needs, wants and demands. Of particular importance is the conflict between the needs of staff members and the structure of the programs. How are staff to conceptualise their role? Is their professionalism located in their ability to manage the learning environment or is it located within their expertise and knowledge of some aspect of adult education? This is an expression of a broader conflict; between educational values such as 'expertise', 'structure', 'rigour' and 'direction' on the one hand; and values such as 'open-endedness', 'ambiguity', 'freedom' and 'learning by doing' on the other.

Meeting 'needs' is thus problematic, and the competing interests of advisers, students, employers and the accrediting institution; ensures an ongoing debate on how needs are to be articulated and whose voice is to be heard.

Teacher/Learner Relationship

The traditional dichotomy between 'teacher' and 'taught' has been challenged by many commentators in adult education. Freire (1972), for example, claims that 'Education must begin with the solution of the teacher-student contradiction, by reconciling the poles of the contradiction so that both are simultaneously teachers and students' (p.46). He then proceeds to contrast 'banking' education (where the 'taught' are passive objects of the educational process) with 'problem-posing' education, which is characterised by dialogue predicated on trust. Rogers (1983) provides one of the most comprehensive and often quoted guidelines for establishing an ideal teacher-learner relationship; the qualities which 'facilitate' learning are threefold:

1. Realness in the facilitator of learning: 'when the facilitator is a real person, being what she is, entering into a relationship with the learner without presenting a front or a facade...' (p.123)
2. Prizing, acceptance and trust: 'I think of it as prizing the learner, prizing her feelings, her opinions, her person. It is a caring for the learner, but a nonpossessive caring.' (p.124)
3. Empathic understanding: 'When the teacher has the ability to understand the students reactions from the inside, has a sensitive awareness of the way the process of education and learning seems to the student.' (p.125)

Staff members, in their advising role, act as consultants and counsellors and it is part of their brief to discuss with their students any issues or problems which influence learning. This is a difficult role because it undercuts many of the mechanisms which distance staff from their students in tertiary institutions and it is another example of a required shift in the conceptualisation of the professional role of staff. Some of the issues mentioned earlier are relevant here (regarding the adviser's role) because they impinge on the question of the accountability of staff members. Is it the responsibility of staff to teach, or is it the responsibility of students to learn? In ITATE's programs students are clearly responsible for their own learning and advisers are responsible for 'facilitating' that learning (in the Rogerian sense). What this usually means for staff is developing the right 'attitude' towards students (as described above) but, in addition, it means acting as a resource for students; a kind of broker linking the student with materials, people and places.

Integrating Education and Work

The ideal of recurrent education, whereby educational opportunities are spread, in a recurring way, across the lifespan, has been a central influence in adult education since the late 1960's (OECD, 1973, 1975). One aspect of this ideal has been the stress on linking education and working life, as evident from OECD and UNESCO publications:

-'Work and other social experience should be regarded as a basic element in admission rules and curricular design' (OECD, 1973, p.28)

-'...measures should be taken to ensure that, in the formulation of the curriculum of adult education programs and activities, the working experience of adults should be taken into account' (UNESCO, 1976)

These ideals have contemporary relevance in Australia, as evidenced from comments made in the Kirby Report (1984) 'we believe that it (the government) should encourage people to move more freely from employment to retirement, between employment and education and training and from full-time to part-time employment or education and back again' (p.31).

The link between education and work is thus portrayed as an important strategy in offsetting contemporary social and economic problems.

There are two ways in which ITATE's programs link education and work:

1 Curriculum design: most of the learning contracts completed by students are directly related to their current work experience in adult education. Most of these contracts are also problem based rather than subject based, and they are implemented in the workplace. For example, a contract may be to design and implement an approach to publicising courses, to write a submission for project funding, to draft a constitution for an adult education organisation, or to construct a set of overhead transparencies for use in training sessions. In this way course credit is obtained through work experience, and the tensions between education and work are reduced.

2 Profile of programs: like other tertiary institutions ITATE's programs allow for leave and special admissions, which assists students in alternative work with education or in using achievements in a work setting as credit towards a degree or diploma. At present ITATE is developing a profile of programs which will allow progression from an associate diploma to a full diploma, a degree, a graduate diploma, and a master's degree; with optional 'exits' at any award level. This will mean that students can alternate education and work, without sacrificing credit, and they can use initial work experience to gain access to a full range of tertiary programs which may otherwise be denied them.

Access is an important notion in the integration of education and work, but, as Griffin (1983) argues, 'access' is commonly conceived in institutional rather than curriculum terms, thus policy-makers and administrators focus on the institutional elements of access such as admissions policies, provisions for distance education, student support facilities, the transferability of credit and so on. He makes out a case for extending the notion of access:

> 'access is a distinctive ideological element of adult education which has stimulated important technical and methodological innovations in areas such as distance learning and the rationalising of provision and the transferability of academic credit and so on. But of course it is possible to achieve all this without radically affecting the curriculum content of a traditional educational system' (p.82).

Thompson (1984, p.92) makes similar claims in her analysis of the participation of women in adult education.

> 'Even if women do considerably increase their access to the opportunities previously monopolised by men in systems of education created and controlled by men, this will do very little to alter the basic relations between women and men in society. It is not merely a question of improving the chances of women to compete in a man's world - to supplement existing provision to that end - but to demand a radical change in the nature of what is being offered. This implies at least an equal share in its control, at least an equal share in the determination of what counts as valuable knowledge within it, and at least an equal recognition that what is important about women's experience of the world is as valid as men's. Without such real equalities, notions of 'equality of opportunity' are essentially rhetorical.'

Both Thompson and Griffin then, reject as insufficient the INSTITUTIONAL solution to the problem of access, and they appeal for a more critical approach to the values and content of the prevailing curriculum structure. The issue of the social and cultural barriers to access has yet to be addressed in ITATE's programs.

There are a number of other general issues in linking educational programs with work. One concern is that manpower planners and employers will dictate the curriculum, for example, by promoting narrow skill training at the expense of general liberal education. A question commonly posed by ITATE staff and students is: to what extent can ongoing work experiences be a legitimate part of a learning contract? This remains a debatable area, with the only yardstick at present being whether the work was initiated by an adviser/student consultation or by the employer. At another level, the attempt to link education and work has revised debate about theoretical and practical education and the relation and distinction between education and training.

Promoting Group Collaborative Effort

'Individualism' has been portrayed as a hallmark of the rhetoric of adult education (Keddie, 1980; Griffin, 1983); but while it is true that the economic unit in much of adult education provision is the individual; there is also a strong collective tradition (Thompson 1980). The blending of collective and individualist traditions has found its clearest expression in the literature on recurrent education. Sommerlad (1981) describes the recurrent education concept as emerging 'as one of a related cluster of concepts - industrial democracy, social equity, participative planning - .... At the core of this value system is an optimistic and humanistic concern for the dignity, autonomy and capacity for purposeful choice of the individual. To nurture and sustain such persons requires a participative, responsible society, the members of which take an active part in contributing the common purpose or commonwealth, rather than adopting a passive, alienated, dependent or non-responsible stance' (p.97).

The program, the Graduate Diploma in Adult Education (Basic Education) specifically provides for small group collaborative work, it has within its structure weekly small group meetings in addition to seminars, workshops and learning contracts. These meetings provide a bridge between the large group seminars and the individual learning contracts. The small groups foster mutual support among students and provide a relaxed forum for exchanging ideas and information. Generally speaking, skill exchanges; peer teaching; group planning; group presentations; exchanging information, references and resources; and group discussion of learning contracts are all aspects of the programs at ITATE. Assessment is based on individual effort, but participation in collaborative work is a basic program requirement. Students are given the option to document their participation and have this submitted as a learning contract. Thus, when learning contracts are not specifically work related, they are usually program related, in this way individual contract work contributes towards group needs and goals.

The Distinction Between Adult and Child Learners

One approach to delineating the distinctive character of adult education is to identify the characteristics of adults and relate these to strategies of adult teaching and learning.

This approach utilises a range of research: the ageing process and its influence on learning (Schaie and Willis, 1979; Cattell, 1963;); lifespan developmental psychology (Levinson, 1978; Neugarten, 1968; Lowenthal, 1975; Weathersby, 1978; Erikson, 1976; Perry, 1981; Kohlberg, 1969); learning styles (Kolb and Fry, 1975; Witkin, 1978; Kagan, 1971); psychology and philosophical assumptions about adult learners (Knowles, 1978; Mezirow, 1981; Rogers, 1983); and documentation of the characteristics of users (Johnstone and Rivera, 1965: Tough, 1979, 1981; Cross, 1981).

To distill commonalities in this research and to draw implications for the processes of adult teaching and learning is a daunting task. Nevertheless, the programs at ITATE do attempt to cater for what appears to be common elements in this research. Scott (1985) has outlined the assumptions implicit in ITATE's programs:

1 Adults have different learning styles.

2 Adults have different starting points for learning.

3 Each starting point usually involves a need to develop new knowledge, skills, attitudes which has arisen from practical experiences.

4 Adults like to be able to immediately apply their learning.

5 Adults are independent and responsible and like this to be recognized when they learn.

6 However, some adults may feel anxiety and uncertainty when returning to study and may need personal, sensitive support from staff to make this transition comfortably.

7 Adults will be judgemental and frank about how well a course meets their needs. Therefore their collaboration in course implementation should be personally sought.

Learning contracts, field experience, the allocation of students to advisers, workshop planning committees and the variety of techniques used in seminars and workshops; can all be seen as addressing these assumptions. They are useful as articles of faith which guide practice. But it is also important to treat them as working hypotheses and thus avoid a static and rather too assured view about the characteristics of adult learners.

Concluding Remarks

Much of the distinctiveness of adult education has been expressed in terms of particular techniques, methods and administrative practices. The structure of ITATE's programs reflect this view, but there is a growing awareness of the tensions and conflicts inherent in previously unchallenged notions such as 'meeting needs', 'democratic decision making', 'self direction', 'access', and 'equality' between staff and students. Some of these tensions have been examined in this paper. They arise largely because of different conceptions concerning the aims and objectives of adult education. Thus the tensions themselves imply a need to address curriculum issues and to formulate programs which are characterised by more than merely a structure of provision.

References

Armstrong, P.F. (1982) The needs meeting ideology in liberal adult education. *The International Journal of Lifelong Education*, *1* (4).

Aslanian, C.B. & Brickell, H.M. Americans in transition: life changes as reasons for adult learning. In *Future Directions for a Learning Society*, N.Y., College Board.

Boshier, R. (1980) *Towards a Learning Society*, Vancouver: Learning Press Ltd.

Boud, D. (1981) *Developing Student Autonomy in Learning*, London: Kagan Page.

Caffarella, R. (1983) Fostering self-directed learning in post secondary education. *Lifelong Learning*, *7* (3).

Cattell, R. (1963) Theory of fluid and crystallized intelligence: a critical experiment, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 54, (1).

Cross, K.P. (1981) *Adults as Learners*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Duke, C. (1984) Participation research. Paper delivered at the Annual Summer School for Adult Educators, U.N.E.

Erikson, E. (1976) *Childhood and Society*, Harmondsworth, Penguin.

Freire, P. (1972) *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, Harmondsworth, Penguin.

Gelpi, E. (1979) *A Future for Lifelong Learning*. Introduced and translated by Ralph Ruddock et al, Manchester, University of Manchester.

Griffin, C. (1983) *Curriculum Theory in Adult and Lifelong Education*, Beckenham, Croom Helm.

Hartree, A. (1984) Malcolm Knowles' theory of andragogy: a critique. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, *3* (3).

Hirst, P. & Peters, R. (1970) *The Logic of Education*, London, Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Houle, C. (1972) *The Design of Education*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Johnstone, J. & Rivera, R. (1965) *Volunteers for Learning*, Chicago, Aldine Publishing.

Kagan, J. (1971) Developmental studies in reflection and analysis. In Kidd, A. and Rivoire, J. *Perceptual Development in Children*, N.Y., International Universities Press.

Kangan, M. (1974) *TAFE in Australia: Report on Needs in Technical and Further Education*, Canberra, AGPS.

Keddie, N. (1980) Adult education: an ideology of individualism. In Thompson, J. (ed.), Adult Education for a Change, London, Hutchinson.

Kirby, P. (1984) Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Labour Market Programs, Canberra, AGPS.

Knowles, M. (1975) Self Directed Learning, N.Y., Associated Press.

Knowles, M. (1978) The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species, Houston, Gulf Publishing.

Knowles, M. (1980) The Modern Practice of Adult Education, Chicago, Association Press.

Kohlberg, L. (1969) Stage and sequence: the cognitive - developmental approach to socialization. In Goslin, D. (ed) Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research, Chicago, Rand McNally.

Kolb, D. & Fry, R. (1975) Towards an applied theory of experiential learning. In Cooper, C. (ed) Theories of Group Processes, London, John Wiley.

Lawrence, G. (1974) Patterns of effective inservice education. Florida, Department of Education.

Lawson, K. (1979) Philosophical Concepts and Values in Adult Education, Milton Keynes, OUP.

Levinson, D. (1978) The Seasons of a Man's Life, N.Y., Knopf.

Lovell, B. (1980) Adult Learning, London, Croom Helm.

Lovett, T. (1975) Adult Education, Community Development and the Working Class, London, Ward Lock.

Lowenthal, M. (1979) Four Stages of Life: A Comparative Study of Women and Men Facing Transitions, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Mee, G. & Wiltshire, H. (1978) Structure and Performance in Adult Education, London, Longman.

Mee, G. (1980) Organisation for Adult Education, London, Longman.

Mezirow, J. (1981) A critical theory of adult learning and education, Adult Education, 32 (1).

Neugarten, B. (1968) Middle Age and Aging, Chicago, University of Chicago Press.

OECD (1973) Recurrent Education: A Strategy for Lifelong Learning, Paris.

OECD (1979) Recurrent Education: Trends and Issues, Paris.

OECD (1979) Recurrent Education for the 1980's: Trends and Policies, Paris, CERI.

Perry, W. (1981) Cognitive and ethical growth: the making of meaning. In Chickering, A. The Modern American College, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Rogers, C. (1983) Freedom to Learn for the 80's, Columbus, Merrill.

Rubenson, K. (1983) Barriers to participation in adult education. Manuscript prepared for the Skill Development Leave Task Force, Ministry of Labour, Canada.

Schaie, K. & Willis, S. (1979) Lifespan development: implications for education. In Shulman, L. (ed), Review of Research in Education, Itasca, Peacock.

Scott, G. (1985) Adult education programs at ITATE. Quarterly Experience, 9.

Sommerlad, E. (1982) Recurrent education: strategy for change or co-optation? International Journal of Lifelong Education, 1 (2).

Sumner, R. (1984) Participation in organised adult education: a review of the literature. Unpublished manuscript.

Tennant, M. (1985) An evaluation of Knowles' theory of adult learning. Unpublished manuscript.

Thompson, J. (1985) AAAE Adult Education Seminar, Sydney.

Thompson, J. (1984) Learning Liberation: Women's Response to Men's Education, London, Croom Helm.

Thompson, J. (ed) (1980) Adult Education for a Change, London, Hutchinson.

Tough, A. (1979) The Adult's Learning Projects, Toronto, OISE.

Tough, A. (1981) Learning Without a Teacher, Toronto, OISE.

UNESCO (1972) Learning to be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow (Faure Report), Paris.

UNESCO (1976) Foundations of Lifelong Education, Oxford, Pergamon Press.

UNESCO (1976) Recommendations on the Development of Adult Education. Recommendations at the General Conference, Nineteenth Session, Nairobi.

Witkin, H. (1971) Psychological differentiations. In Cashdown, A. and Whitehead, T. (eds) Personality, Growth and Learning, London, Longman.

ENCOURAGING FARMERS TO TRAIN OTHER FARMERS: CASE STUDIES IN RURAL TRAINEESHIP AND SHORT COURSE PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT

David Stent

Many continuing education programmes cross institutional boundaries. They may even enter the real adult life in a community or industry where the outstanding human resources are people without degrees or institutional allegiances.

One of the characteristics of adults is their ability to be concurrently a learner and a teacher. The bulk of their learning is self-directed, supplemented on occasions by formal courses. Unfortunately, often human resource developers in the field of adult education wear institutional and pedagogical blinkers that partially blind them to this.

Increasingly adult education programmes are managed by co-ordinators, whose responsibility is to harness these informal and often temporary resources to assist in the educational process. The educational institution invariably provides little support or recognition for the human resource development (H.R.D.) that is a necessary element in the harnessing operation.

A prerequisite for the institution to acknowledge and support this operation is its desire to constructively encourage industry, communities and individuals to achieve a large measure of educational self-reliance. Further, that there is a commitment on the part of the institution to build a teacher-teacher relationship between themselves and the user of its services.

Should the institution meet these prerequisites, it would place more emphasis on the role played by the informal adult educator and provide support for them. Training of these people is often inappropriate or impractical, although assistance in their preparation and encouragement in their operation is vital to achieve successful educational outcomes. This is practical human resource development that is often overlooked.

In a recent excellent paper by Dailey about the application of adult learning principles in large organisations she warned:

> "When a uniform and equitable system needed to be institutionalized to mass produce and mass educate; bureaucracy and pedagogy filled the void."

and further that there is a need for,

> "an open system where an andragogical model is dominant." (Dailey, 1984)

This should be equally true for adult educational organizations as for the general organizational context she is referring to.

A Human Resource Development Model 1

This paper offers a H.R.D. Model that acknowledges the important role of the informal adult educator in the adult education process. It provides for the development of them as a resource by means of encouragement and assistance. This is demonstrated in case studies of farmer education programmes for farmers by T.A.F.E. in South Australia, and present continuing education programmes for farmers by the Department of Agriculture in New South Wales.

In these programmes the important ingredient is that adults are encouraged to facilitate the learning of other adults by a co-ordinator who is not necessarily a subject specialist. His/her human resources are:-

(i) the subject specialist or practitioner contracted to contribute (contributor)
(ii) help from other organizations (collaborators)
(iii) participants encouraged to teach other participants
(iv) providers of equipment or facilities (co-operators)
(v) participants encouraged to teach others back in their industry or community
(vi) employers of trainees encouraged to adopt good training methods in the workplace

A composite of the activities of these human resources creates a temporary web of learning that eventually involves the industry or community on a continuing basis (See Figure 1).

Farmer Education: T.A.F.E., South Australia

A network of Rural Studies Co-ordinators have been deployed into country T.A.F.E. Colleges throughout South Australia in recent years. Their task is to develop local educational programmes that prepare young farmers for a future in farming and that give practicing farmers access to continuing education in their vocation.

In the past farmers were content, in the main, to learn from experience in the "family" school. Over recent years they have recognised the need to be more "educated" to deal with the business of farming and to grapple with new technology. However, this history of self-reliant education was not to be overlooked or undervalued (Polkinghorne & Stent, 1982). The farmers, through the United Farmers and Stockowners Organization made sure of this. They played a major part in the development of the educational methodology used today.

Two approaches to farmer education have been developed — A short course programme for practicing farmers and the On-farm Training Scheme which is now the approved training programme for trainees in the Declared Vocation of Farming.

Short Courses for Practicing Farmers

The T.A.F.E. Rural Studies Co-ordinator responds to a need for "education" in an area. (In parts of South Australia this often comes from an education self-help group in a farming area called an Agricultural Bureau.)

A course is developed in consultation with potential participants, contributors and collaborators (quite often these latter people are South Australian Department of Agriculture regional advisory officers or specialists). In this way existing and future agricultural advisory programmes can be incorporated into the course and its follow-up activities. As well, the involvement of participants at this stage, ensures relevance in course content, makes farm and other local resources available and commences the learning process early for both collaborators and participants.

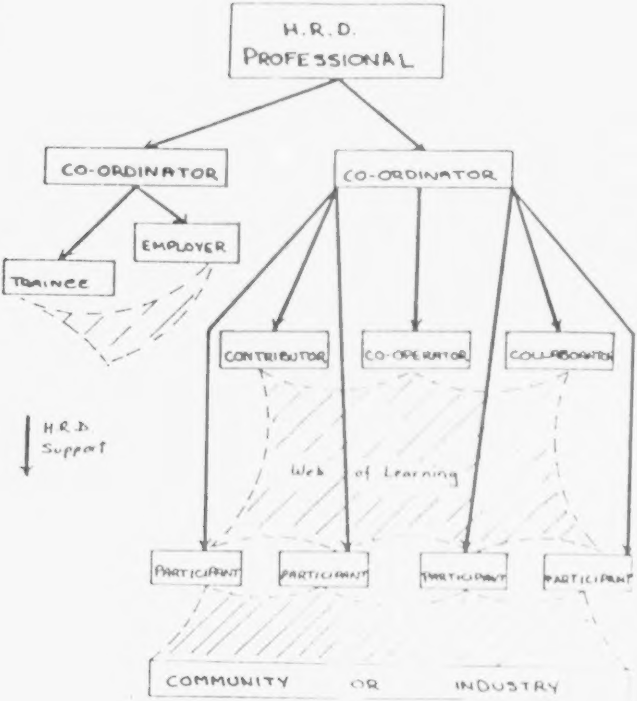
H.R.D. PROFESSIONAL
CO-ORDINATOR
CO-ORDINATOR
EMPLOYER
TRAINEE
CONTRIBUTOR
CO-OPERATOR
COLLABORATOR
H.R.D. Support
Web of Learning
PARTICIPANT
PARTICIPANT
PARTICIPANT
PARTICIPANT
COMMUNITY OR INDUSTRY

Figure 1[illegible] MODEL OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT FOR THE ADULT EDUCATION PROCESS

Once the location, marketing needs and contribution needs are identified, the co-ordinator commences his final planning. Part of this is to provide assistance to contributors, collaborators and co-operating farmers, and to encourage them in a number of ways. Some of these are:-

(i) use venues that they are "at home" in, rather than the more threatening "classroom", unless educational aids require it,

(ii) legitimise their knowledge by highlighting the importance of experience derived knowledge,

(iii) the co-ordinator avoids being a technical chauvanist but rather facilitates the information sharing process,

(iv) praise the use of good communication skills as well as technical competence,

(v) support their presentation - use visual aids for them - do not attempt to train them in these skills at the last moment as it will stifle their presentation,

(vi) get them to plan their presentation - however, remember that too formal or structured presentations are often alien to them,

(vii) reassure any feelings of inadequacy and,

(viii) suggest alternative presentation methods that involve participants in sharing their experiences and other knowledge with fellow participants.

Some of these suggestions may include:-

(a) allow time for it in the programme,

(b) reduce "overkill" of new information by contributor until the level of existing experiential knowledge is ascertained,

(c) "chair" these processes to draw out knowledge,

(d) use "panel sessions" or other similar formats and,

(e) stimulate a sense of responsibility to share new knowledge in their own work-place or community.

On-Farm Training Scheme (Leading to a Certificate in Farm Practice)

It operates with limited resources by T.A.F.E. country colleges. A single course co-ordinator promotes, counsels and enrols approximately 20 farmer trainees every two years. He then co-ordinates a number of training activities with the help of a range of organizations and trainer farmers. Trainer farmers are often the trainee's father or mother - although sometimes a sharefarmer, neighbour, brother or employer. Trainer farmers undergo a 2-day orientation programme at the beginning of the course to familiarise them with their responsibilities in the Scheme.

The course is a practical farming course where most of the training is carried out by the trainer farmer on the farm. They follow a programme managed by the course co-ordinator. The duration of the course is two farming years.

The co-ordinator organises special field days and sets assignments and projects for trainees on the farm. He visits each farm twice a year. Here he advises on training programmes and carries out a series of on-farm skills assessments.

Every six months for three weeks during off-peak working time, trainees attend off-farm training sessions. Various topics relevant to farming are taught - they include segments on crops, stock, soil, book-keeping. As well, extra skills such as shearing shed management, mechanics, fencing and welding are taught.

Trainee exchanges are arranged when and where necessary throughout the course. A record book is kept by each trainee to record all training activities.

A Management Committee within a training region, comprising the Co-ordinator, Trainer farmers, Trainees and other farmers, S.A.G.R.I.C. and T.A.F.E. personnel, is responsible for the development, management and the ongoing evaluation of the course.

This Scheme purposely highlights the importance of experience derived knowledge of present practitioners, and attempts to encourage the transfer of it to new practitioners. The assumption is that this knowledge is very legitimate and therefore needs to be included in the programme. As well, that only present practitioners are qualified to do this.

The Co-ordinator has a continuing need to encourage the use of good training methods by the trainer farmer. He assists in the development of improved communication between employer and employee (often father and son in farming) based on sound adult-adult relationship principles.

This is important, as the trainees bring up-to-date or alternative knowledge and skills back to the farm from the off-farm training sessions. The trainer farmer benefits if he does consider their application on his farm. In reality both are learners and teachers.

The involvement of the Department of Agriculture specialist contributors establish a comfortable relationship between user and provider of agricultural information. It also means a continuing access to new information in the future. As with trainees and trainers, these specialists improve their understanding of farm practices by their involvement with trainees. This is a recognised educational outcome by all involved.

There are a number of means by which a trainer farmer is encouraged to better train his trainee. Some are:-

(i) gain a commitment to training at the beginning of the programme,
(ii) provide an awareness of the need for good communications,
(iii) promote a propensity to include training time in their management practices and style,
(iv) provide a simple training framework, e.g.
    (a) breakdown jobs into smaller tasks,
    (b) teach in stages - do it, show it, allow practice and allow responsibility,
(v) encourage development of an adult-adult relationship between trainee and trainer,
(vi) remind them of the probably poor initial training they experienced and of how they can avoid repeating it,
(vii) involve them in the assessment of the trainee's progress and,
(viii) remind of initial commitment throughout the programme.

The New South Wales Department of Agriculture

This Department has recognized the need for sound adult educational practices to be adopted by its advisory and education staff. It encourages them to include short courses as part of their education and extension programmes for the rural industry.

These courses provide an opportunity for farmers themselves to "teach" other farmers, and for specialist resource people to be involved in the adult education process. The Advisory officer in many instances facilitates the process.

This approach acknowledges the wealth of knowledge in the farming community which is both experience derived and formally acquired in recent times. Information resources abound but there is a dearth of those who can facilitate its transfer. Extension and Education staff of the Department of Agriculture are developing skills that harness many human resources to work towards industry educational objectives.

The Department's Murrumbidgee College of Agriculture, provides support to this.

H.R.D. Implications

This model requires institutional support if it is to be consistently applied. In the early stages of its development in South Australia, community support took precedence. As it becomes more institutionalized there is a danger of a return to more regimented systems that defy sound adult learning principles. Should the institution decide to build onto this firm base, initial and continuing H.R.D. support for the co-ordinators requires special treatment.

In South Australia peer H.R.D. support was the mainstay as staff development programmes were of doubtful relevance. A support network of co-ordinators developed. In this there is a challenge to H.R.D. professionals to "encourage" co-ordinators in their work. Understanding this model will assist them should they take up the challenge.

Institutions that wish to accommodate these sound adult learning principles could examine the approach of the Agricultural Training Board in the United Kingdom. Brian Clarke, Foundation Principal of McMillan Campus, Victorian College of Agriculture and Horticulture, where there have been significant farmer training innovations over recent years reported of the Agricultural Training Board (A.T.B.).

> "The philosophy of the A.T.B., through which it has achieved remarkable success in recent years, is to provide training through other people. This involves the creation of a large network of community people with appropriate technical skills, who have been trained as trainers by the A.T.B. system, but who remain employed basically within their own industry. These tutors thus have high credibility with the people in industry that they are called upon to train in A.T.B. courses, from time to time. The courses themselves are organised by Training Groups encouraged by the A.T.B. staff. There are now 650 such groups throughout the U.K., an increase from around 200 some five years ago. Each group is responsible for its own training programme, and the staff of the A.T.B., especially the Training Advisor at County level, is there to advise and assist. This system is considered to be very effective for the cost involved

> and has less of a bureaucratic stigma associated with it than some alternative systems operating elsewhere. There are between 20 and 60 farmers in each training group, and each group has the services of a group training organiser, who is usually employed on a part-time basis, often acting as an organiser for more than one group. This person is typically female, and typically not from a farm herself" (Clarke, 1985).

Some Agricultural Bureau in New South Wales have needed a revitalized role for some time. Perhaps the "Training Group" in the U.K. is a model worth examining that could fire this revitalization.

The author was previously a Rural Studies Co-ordinator with T.A.F.E., South Australia and is presently Manager, Short Course Services at the Murrumbidgee College of Agriculture, Yanco, New South Wales.

References

Clarke, Brian, N.R. Unpublished Report of an Overseas Study Tour, November 1984 - January 1985.

Dailey, N. "Adult Learning and Organizations" Training and Development Journal, December 1984, pp.64-68.

Polkinghorne, G. and Stent, D.L. "The On-Farm Training Scheme - South Australia" Connections, No.11, Winter, June 1982.

DEVELOPING TRAINING OFFICER SKILLS IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT:

NEW SOUTH WALES POLICE AS A CASE STUDY

John M. Maitland

The tale is soon told. On 17th December, 1984 Larry Lucas and the author first met with representatives of the New South Wales Police Department to discuss revision of the training program for Probationary Constables. About six weeks later on 29th January, 1985 a 110 page report containing 72 recommendations, a three phase program structure, 79 competencies each identified at three levels of difficulty, an innovative field training component and a draft implementation program, was handed to the Chairman of the Police Training Review Committee.

The brevity of the tale highlights one important factor in this consultancy project - the speed with which it was conducted. If there is such a thing as a speed limit in the conduct of curriculum development, one always had the feeling that the Project continually exceeded it.

This approach to the Project concentrates on the product of the task rather than on the process, yet the speed with which the task was completed suggests that the process is probably of greater interest to adult educators and curriculum experts than its product.

Neither of the Consultants had any knowledge of police work or training prior to this Project and although the briefing given by Departmental Officers was extensive, the Consultants' initial lack of knowledge in the area ensured that they could not have produced such a Report unaided.

What then was the nature of this process? The Police, it seemed had made almost every major decision before the Consultants were invited to assist.

First, the Training Review Committee which was responsible for the Project, had decided to set up a Curriculum Development Team to carry out seven tasks:

1. identify the functions of Probationary Constables;
2. identify the training needs of Probationary Constables;
3. determine the methodology of training (detailed comparison with current practices and identification of proposed changes to be determined);
4. determine a training syllabus by identifying all subjects required to be taught;
5. determine the curriculum, i.e., establish the philosophy/aims/objectives of Probationary Training and determine the strategies to achieve those aims;
6. identify appropriate evaluation/assessment procedures;
7. report back detailed findings to the Chairman, Training Review Committee, by 30 January, 1985.

The Police Project Team numbered nine people, including two women Constables from operational duties. In addition to male operational duties police activities represented were criminal investigation, training and induction, traffic logistics and prosecution. These nine Officers represented approximately 120 years of experience in police work, and they were to be released for a fortnight to carry out the seven tasks allotted to them in conjunction with the Consultants.

This was the situation facing the Consultants when they were invited to assist in the task of revising the Probationary Constable Training Program.

Only four days after their initial briefing by Departmental Officers, the Consultants were listed to meet with the Commissioner and his Senior Advisers to establish the roles of the Consultants and the Curriculum Project Team Members. Within those four days, the Consultants also had to digest the briefing material and to decide on the basic principle or principles which would guide the Team's work. Although a major decision, it had to be made within the constraints of the decisions already taken by the Police Training Review Committee.

Among several matters of agreement reached with the Commissioner the most important was that the training of Probationary Constables should be competency based. The literature made available to us stressed the need to set police training and educaton within the context of the society which such training would serve. This need, it was argued, would be effectively fulfilled only if police training focused on what a policeman does or ought to do rather than merely on what he must know. Competency based education met this requirement.

A conference then took place between the Consultants and the Co-ordinator of the Training Review Committee at which it was agreed that the seven tasks as set out above could not possibly be carried out in a fortnight.

Consequently, the following aims for the Curriculum Project Team were agreed to in order of priority:

1. to develop a list of tasks and competencies required of a Probationary Constable;
2. to develop a program for Probationary Constable training based upon the competencies;
3. to develop a timetable for implementation;
4. to identify significant problems which would arise from implementation of the program.

Even this program seemed ambitious. In addition, the Team Co-ordinator requested that the Consultants should lead the Workshop. This they also agreed to do.

To achieve the above aims a program was developed which set out to identify tasks and competencies of a Probationary Constable over the first three days. The Team would then move onto the development of Case Study learning modules. Having identified the content of the Course and an important teaching strategy the second week was to be devoted to revision of course structure and the development of an implementation timetable.

Bortz's Task Listing Sheets and Task Detailing Sheets (Bortz, 1980), were to provide the models for task analysis, and the tasks were identified initially in terms of the handling of specific offences (for example, Motor Vehicle Accident - No Person Injured). These specific offences in turn would provide the basis for developing case studies. To expedite the Team's work three groups were formed each to be responsible for analysing the handling of two major offences.

This conventional and logical approach to curriculum development together with the Team's experience seemed to promise achievement of the Aims set for the fortnight.

By lunchtime on the second day, the Team Co-ordinator and the Chairman of the Training Review Committee were concerned at the slow progress being made. Early on the first morning Team members indicated that they would prefer to remain together for a task analysis session which could then be used as a model by the groups. This was done and the groups then began work on analysing their topics. However, confusion began to arise over the relationship between task analysis, competencies and case studies.

Although the Team was highly experienced in Police work only one member had teacher training experience. He together with two others had had experience in or were currently involved in Police education. However, the temptation was always to compare the attempted analysis with courses which had been taught. The approach taken to task analysis was new to nearly all members of the Team and there was also suspicion of "academics".

The Co-ordinator pointed out that almost one fifth of the allotted time had passed and we had not even completed the task analysis segment of the program!

After lunch on day two the Consultants introduced the American Society for Training and Development's Models for Excellence (1983). On the basis of the work already done the Consultants set out a few competencies in this format and Team members began to respond positively. The groups then went to work to apply the method and day three's program was amended to look at the level of competency required first at attestation and then after confirmation, for each competency identified.

At the end of day three the bulk of the work on the competencies as they appeared in the final Report had been completed. Team morale was much higher and a feeling of achievement predominated.

The program was further amended on days four and five. Instead of developing the competencies into case study modules it was decided to concentrate on course structure.

This was done and by the end of the first week the outline of a new course structure was in place. This structure involved significant changes in the field work component, an extensive increase in course length, and a major change in the way the stages of the course were identified and organised.

The Team was working steadily by this time, the Co-ordinator was satisfied with progress made, and the jargon of competency, case study, and task analysis was being used in a completely natural manner. Furthermore, the work to be done in week two could be clearly identified. It would be spent refining the competencies and the course structure, identifying implementation problems and drawing up a draft implementation program. This was carried out in a mixture of group and Team sessions.

One task the Consultants had to do was to write a statement of Philosophy for the Course. This was done and presented to the Team for criticism and adoption during week two.

It was an interesting measure of rapport between Consultants and Team members that the Team adopted the Statement almost without amendment.

The final task of the Consultants was to write the Report. This was adopted by the Training Review Committee and ran the gammut of a variety of Committees until it has been incorporated into a comprehensive plan for change within the entire Police Force. This comprehensive plan is currently before the Police Board.

Satisfaction at the extent of the Report's adoption thus far is tempered, however, by the knowledge that the Curriculum Team Workshop could so easily have been a failure. Lunchtime on the second day of the Workshop was crisis time. The groups had become bogged down in the specifics for dealing with the offence under analysis. Why had the program not worked up to that stage and what could be done to make it work?

The work of David Schon (1983) helps to articulate the answer. Schon distinguishes the model of Technical Rationality from the model of Reflection-in-Action. In the case of the former, "...professional activity consists in instrumental problem solving made rigorous by the application of scientific theory and technique." (Schon, 1983, p.21). Thus for any given problem there is a technique for solving it. The assumption here is that specific problems can be readily identified, but Schon argues that this is not so. In this case, for example, the conventional curriculum development wisdom was that a task analysis of various police activities was necessary to identify appropriate competencies. What happened, however, was that the task analysis was tending to identify potential course content rather than the competency. For example, the competency for preserving the scene of a serious crime was eventually identified at the Induction Phase of training as (1) being aware of the need, and knowing the procedures for preserving the scene of a crime and (2) being aware of the actions to be taken and the need to exercise control, if first on the scene of a major crime.

The Consultants had held to the conventional wisdom and in doing so neglected the nature of the experience of Team members. We had assumed that the problem of identification of competencies was the only problem. In Schon's words, (1983)

> From the perspective of Technical Rationality, professional practice is a process of problem solving. Problems of choice or decision are solved through the selection, from available means, of the one best suited to established ends. But with this emphasis on problem solving, we ignore problem setting, the process by which we define the decision to be made, the ends to be achieved, the means which may be chosen. In real-world practice, problems do not present themselves to the practitioner as given. They must be constructed from the materials of problematic situations which are puzzling, troubling, and uncertain (pp. 39, 40).

We had concentrated only on problem solving; we had assumed that the problem was given. Problem setting had been ignored.

Another aspect of problem setting of which the Consultants were aware was the suspicion of "academics", but the only step taken to cope with it was to try to convey to the Team that we saw ourselves as first among equals rather than as professionals teaching amateurs. However, the uneasiness of Team members by lunchtime Tuesday seemed to reinforce their suspicions rather than lessen them.

The choice of Models for Excellence as a new approach to identifying competencies proved an inspired one. Team members seemed impressed that it was developed over two years by practitioners of some of the biggest companies in the United States of America. Somehow, the approach would guarantee relevance.

The short time allowed was another factor to which the Consultants found it difficult to adjust. A colleague with extensive experience in TAFE's Curriculum Division remarked that there, similar work to identification of competencies alone, would have been spread over several weeks. In this instance we had to grapple with our own scepticism that the task could actually be done in the allotted time. In fact, the entire time frame which tested us all, had to be accepted because it had been established under heavy political pressure on the force for change.

There were at least three factors which helped to save the Workshop. First was an instinctive dissatisfaction on the part of the Consultants with the model of Technical Rationality. Thus when trouble came we did not feel that we had an idea or approach which had to be defended to the death.

Second, a Team Co-ordinator of outstanding ability. He was an officer with an outstanding grasp of the nature of police work and of the organization and administration of the Force. As a bonus he had also had considerable experience in teaching Probationary Constables.

The third factor was the membership of the Team. They wanted to produce an effective revised course, and therefore were willing to try an alternative approach to the task even if it appeared that their wariness of academics may have been justified once more! The way they worked even more than the product of that work reminds one of Revans' Action Learning approach to managerial training. In fact, the experience for both Consultants and the Team members is summed up by Lessem (Revans, 1982) in his account of Action Learning.

> Action learning at its most profound is a form of personal therapy, a means of social and economic transformation, and even a way of life. Let me try to construct Revans' argument, step by step.
>
> We start with the symbolic amalgamation of 'artisan' and 'scribe'. Knowledge, for Revans, can be only the outcome of action. By wrestling (as artisan) with live problems, and subsequently reflecting (as scribe) upon the results of his achievements, the learner acquires knowledge. Revans continues with the symbolic intermingling of 'education' and 'industry'. For the knowledge acquired is not so much the facts of techniques imparted by an educator, but, more appropriately, the reinterpretation of the practitioner's own existing knowledge. This reinterpretation is best achieved through the meeting of 'self' and 'other', that is, of 'comrades in adversity'.
>
> .....
>
> Action learning employs the social process by which a 'set' of four or five learners, by the apparent incongruity of their exchanges,

frequently cause each other to examine afresh both 'project' design and its implementation.

Action learning is also a personal activity which combines objective analysis ('science') and subjective commitment ('religion'). Its logical foundation is the structural identity of the scientific method, of rational decision making, of the exchange of sound advice and fair criticism, and of the learning of new behaviour. Yet, while talking and argument call only for intelligence or quickness of wit, doing and action call for commitment or true belief. For, in taking action, Revans claims, especially after one has clearly exposed one's motives to close and critical colleagues, one is obliged to explore that inner self otherwise so often taken for granted. In seeking answers to difficult work-related questions, especially in conditions of risk and confusion, miners, nurses and managers begin to learn who they themselves may be: to answer their 'work questions' they must, at the same time, explore their 'self-questions'.

"...knowledge is the consequence of action, and to know is the same as to do". (Revans, 1982, pp.12, 13)

References

Bortz, R.F. (1980) Handbook for Developing occupational curricula, Boston, Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Models for excellence (1983) Washington, American Society for training and development.

Schon, D.A. (1983) The reflective practitioner. How professionals think in action, New York, Basic Books Inc., Publishers.

Revans, R.W. (1982) The origins and growth of action learning, Chartwell-Bratt Ltd.

THE ADULT EDUCATOR AS ADMINISTRATOR:

A SIMULATION ACTIVITY

Gillian Shadwick

Workshop Purpose

Adult educators are often required to spend a considerable amount of their time as administrators. Frequently they have gained administrative responsibility within their organisations because they have been excellent as teachers or trainers or human resource developers and not because of proven expertise in administration.

The purpose of this workshop is to provide through simulation an experiential context in which participants are encouraged:

1. To identify the particular problems they face in their role as new administrators of a given organisation.
2. To classify these problems according to their importance and their urgency.
3. To suggest effective ways of managing these problems.
4. To justify their suggested ways of managing the problems.
5. To identify additional problems, tasks and issues that as administrators they may be called on to manage in their own real-life organisations.

Workshop Activity

The central activity of the workshop is an IN-BASKET SIMULATION. Participants are placed in the position of taking over, without any warning, the role of administrator of an Adult Community Learning Centre. Their first task as new administrators is to examine the 17 items in the previous administrator's in-tray ("in-basket") and to report to the Committee of Management on action to be taken. The 17 items include memos, letters, on-file records, transcripts of phone calls and advertisements. The Committee of Management in this instance is made up of fellow workshop participants.

Although this in-basket activity is set in the context of a Community Learning Centre, the administrative problems raised are those faced by administrators involved in the management of education within ANY organisation. As "new administrators", workshop participants need to be able firstly to IDENTIFY their problems and then to make SOUND CHOICES about how these problems should be managed.

Problem areas arising through the in-basket simulation include those of:

- staffing
- programming
- budgeting
- marketing
- public relations
- conflict management
- organisational growth

- organisational communications
- staff development
- time development
- time management
- leadership style.

CONFERENCE RECOMMENDATIONS ON TRAINING ADULT EDUCATORS

1 That the AAAE, as the national organisation interested in the development of Adult Education in Australia, support or encourage the compilation and production of a national register of resources used in the training of Adult Educators.

2 That the AAAE Conference supports the development of links between AITD, ACAL, AACE and AAAE in order to further strengthen co-operation among organisations concerned with the structure and provision of adult education and training.

3 That the Conference organisers send copies of the Conference Proceedings to major national and international centres concerned with the study of Adult Education.

4. That cross-cultural issues relevant to developing adult educators be included as a topic in future conferences on training adult educators.

5 That future conferences aim to develop understanding of the patterns of informal learning which occurs spontaneously in society.

OTHER RECOMMENDATIONS AND STATEMENTS

1 That this Conference recognises and supports the efforts of all Aboriginal Community Colleges and Independent Colleges in providing Adult Education.

2 That the Conference endorses the four recommendations listed in the report 'Training from women's perspectives'.

REGISTER OF PARTICIPANTS

ABDUSSALAM, S.
Senior Training Officer,
Ministry of Finance, Indonesia

ALCANTARA, Jerome
Chief HRD Officer
National Power Corporation, Philippines

ALVIOR, Milda
Social Welfare Specialist
Ministry of Social Service and Development, Philippines

ANDRESEN, Lee
Tertiary Education Research Centre
University of New South Wales, Sydney
P.O. Box 1, Kensington

ANUSORNNITISARN, Nipaporn
University of Chululangkom, Thailand

APARIS, Josefine
University of Philippines

BALDIE, Brian
Macquarie University, Sydney
North Ryde, 2113

BISDA, Elenita
National Power Corporation, Philippines

BORG, Frank
New South Wales Public Service, Sydney
Fletcher Building, 491 Kent St., Sydney

BOYLE, Helen
Tranby Aboriginal College, Sydney
13 Mansfield St., Glebe, 2037

BRIGGS, Jane
Australian Public Service, Canberra
McLachlan Offices, National Circuit, Barton, 2600

CROSSING, Elinor
Council of Adult Education, Victoria
20 Bridgeport St., South Melbourne, 3205

FLORES-LUY, Lillian
Training and Personnel Development, Civil Service, Philippines

FOSTER, Keith
Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education
Box K12, Haymarket, Sydney, 2000

FOX, Christine
International Training Institute
Middle Head, Mosman, 2091

GALLPEN, Ian
Department of Veteran Affairs
444 St.Kilda Rd, Melbourne

GEERING, Adrian
South Australian College of Advanced Education
Holbrooks Rd., Underdale, 5032

GRAHAM, Ann
University of Nottingham, UK.

GRAHAM, Brian
University of Nottingham, UK.

HANSEN, Beth
North Coast Adult Education Liaison Group
Box 525 Lismore, 2480

HODGES, Neil
Moore Paragon Australia Ltd.,
Box 30 Kooringal, 2650

HUME-ADAMSON, Mimi
Lismore College of TAFE
53 Cathcart St., Lismore

JENNINGS, Leonie
Deakin University
28 Rickard St., Ryde, 2112

JOHNSON, Sue
University of Western Australia
21 Thomas St., South Fremantle, 6167

KARUNDENG, Robby
Chief, Training Section, Highways, Indonesia

KELLY, Aileen
Council of Adult Education
Laburnum St., Blackburn, 3130

KNIGHTS, Sue
Freelance Adult Educator
13 Sutherland Ave, Paddington 2021

KUTT, Irina
H.E.A.R.
101 Wellington Parade, South East Melbourne

LONG, Pete
Department of TAFE, Queensland
61 Brodie St, Holland Park, 4121

MACABULOS, Nicolas
Ministry of Agriculture and Food, Philippines

MAITLAND, John
Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education
Box K12, Haymarket, Sydney 2000

MANSER, Pat
New South Wales Board of Adult Education
189 Kent St., Sydney

MASON, Robb
Council of Adult Education, Victoria
78 The Esplanade, Brighton, 3186

MILNE, Chris
Tranby Aboriginal College
13 Mansfield St., Glebe, 2037

MORRIS, Roger
Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education
Box K12, Haymarket, Sydney, 2000

MULLAVEY-O'BYRNE, Colleen
Cumberland College of Health Sciences
East St, Lidcombe

MUMFORD, Michele
Continuing Education Centre,
63 High St., Wodonga

NEWMAN, Michael
Trade Union Training Authority
5 Olive St., Paddington, 2021

OLIPHANT, Michael
Box Hill College of TAFE
14 Grove St., Vermont, 3133

PARISH, Nan
Adult Education Centre
Kurabri, Geurie, 2831

PATTON, David
Australian Public Service
McLachlan Offices, National Circuit, Barton, 2600

PEACE, Brian
New South Wales Board of Adult Education
189 Kent St., Sydney 2000

PHUETPHAN, Apichart
Institute of Government Administration, Thailand

PRATHEEP, Taenglian
Institute for Developing Educational Administrators, Thailand

PRICE, Ann
Public Service Board
491 Kent St., Sydney

QUILATES, Leila
National Economic and Development Authority, Philippines

RILEY-MUNDINE, Lyn
Tranby Aboriginal College
13 Mansfield St., Glebe, 2037

ROBERTS, Bill
Woden College of TAFE
Box 666, Woden, ACT, 2606

SAUNDERS, Shirley
New South Wales Institute of Technology
27 Euroka St., Northbridge, 2063

SCOTT, Geoff
Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education
Box K12, Haymarket, Sydney, 2000

SHADWICK, Gillian
Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education
Box K12, Haymarket, Sydney, 2000

STENT, David
Department of Agriculture
72 Bolton St., Narrandera

STILLER, Glen
Army Apprenticeship Training
PO Bonegilla, 3691

TENNANT, Mark
Institute of Technical and Adult Teacher Education
Box K12, Haymarket, Sydney, 2000

TEO-HEE, Lian
Civil Service Institute, Singapore

THIELE, Keith
Department of Education
Box 4821, Darwin, N.T.

TOOGOOD, Tom
Riverina CAE
Box 588, Wagga

TSYKALAS, Pat
Workers Education Association
72 Bathurst St., Sydney

UNWIN, Kay
H.E.A.R.
101 Wellington Parade, South East Melbourne

WALLACE, Leigh
Department of Veterans Affairs
140 McLeans Rd., Bundoora, 3083

WALLACE, Rob
Box Hill College of TAFE
14 Grove St, Vermont, 3133

WEIER, Mal
Department of TAFE, Queensland
27 Burchell St., Carina, Brisbane

WILLIS, Margaret
Adult Migrant Education Service,
34 Flanders Ave., Matraville, 2036